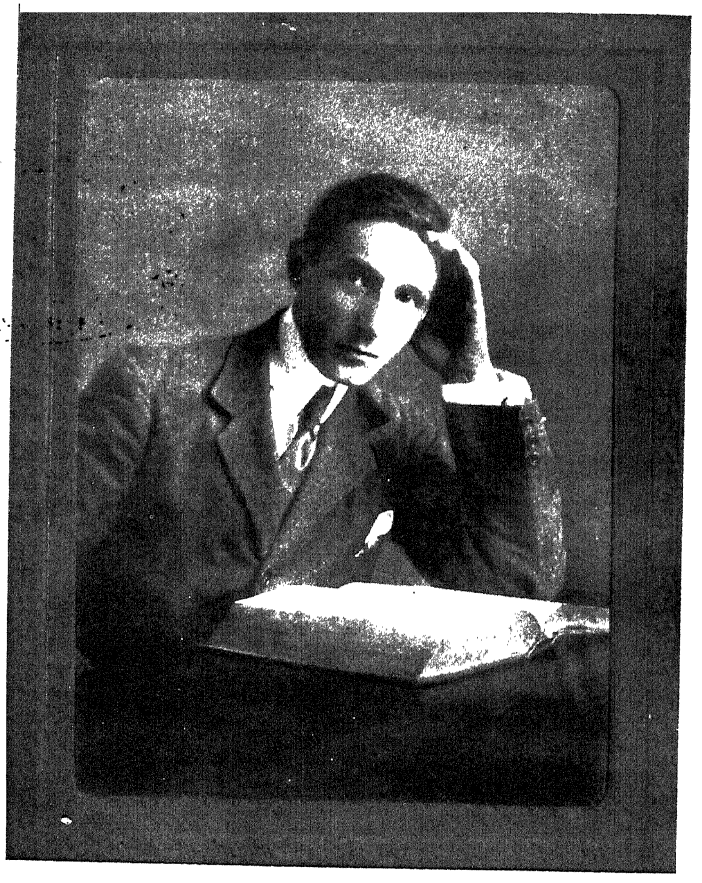

EMILE MARCAULT

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The Outlook Tower

MANY teachers have spoken to us of the need for a special number of *The New Era* devoted to the teachers themselves—claiming for them the freedom which we have always claimed for the child.

As we sit down to write, picture after picture of the different types of teachers who have asked for help rise to the mind. There is, for instance:

(1) The young idealist, straight from college, who hopes to put the new methods into practice but is appointed to a school of which the head has been principal for thirty years and does not want any changes. Facing the difficulties of large classes, inadequate equipment, senior colleagues who are not in sympathy with the new methods, the young enthusiast is forced to yield outwardly and follow the beaten track, while inwardly disapproving, thus setting up a condition of disharmony and strain between the subjective and objective self.

(2) The teacher of over forty who has been teaching in a secondary school for over twenty years, and, tired of the routine, the endless preparation and corrections, the stilted cramming for examinations, asks advice as to how she can obtain a post in a new type of school—and yet we know that the iron of the system has, unknown to herself, moulded her too firmly in the old methods so that in the new type of school she would be miserably unhappy.

(3) The teacher who, though able and willing to teach in the new type of school, has a dependent relation and consequently requires the extra salary given in State-aided schools. Trying to fit into the old system she is constantly at war within, knowing what should be and yet having to comply with outworn formulae.

(4) The young idealist, full of aspiration but with insufficient personality to control a class without the old methods of discipline, or to arouse interest in work without the artificial incentives of marks and prizes.

(5) The individual with domestic difficulties, causing perpetual warfare within, though she knows so well that the success of her work with the young depends largely upon the personal atmosphere of harmony that she is able to create.

(6) The teacher in a boarding school in which one sex is segregated from the other and where consequently the emotional life is imperfectly balanced.

Personality

In the New Schools the personality of the teacher counts even more than in the Old Schools, for when the children are not forced to work by fear, punishment and artificial stimuli, such as marks and prizes, they require a natural stimulus which is only to be found in a teacher who can make her subjects sufficiently interesting to arouse desire for work.

The teacher is required to give so much of herself to her pupils that there is a danger of great strain if she has not learned the art of re-creation. We have found in going about among teachers a great deal of enthusiasm and wonderful self-sacrifice, and yet at the same time too often there are limitations caused by nervous tension, emotional complexes and mental bias which prevent the enthusiasm and self-sacrifice from bearing full fruitage.

We have therefore devoted this number of the magazine to suggestions concerning re-creation in the hope that some of them may prove to be of use to our readers. We must confess that the task is harder than it seemed when we first contemplated

this subject. Our suggestions are made in all humility, for in tackling the question we have come to see how very personal the problem is and how very easy it is to enunciate counsels of perfection which are impossible in practice.

Rhythm

The New Psychology has given us the picture of man as a consciousness ever striving to express itself through action, emotion and thought. The Real or Subjective Self has the dual task of urging outwards into objectivity, experiencing a variety of contacts with environment, and also of withdrawing into "silence," the condition of true growth and re-creation. The problem is to maintain a rhythmic harmony between the various channels of expression, so that there is an uninterrupted flow of life through them, thus allowing the individual to tap unceasingly the Source, the Collective Unconscious, the Cosmic Life Force. Just as in the physical body any kind of blockage or disease will inhibit the flow of vitality, so mental and emotional tangles will prevent the harmonious flowing of the life from the All into the individual.

Sicknesses of the mind are more dangerous than physical ills because they are less understood and are often located in the sub-conscious beyond the reach of conscious effort. Repression (instead of sublimation) of the primitive instincts, lack of opportunities for creative expression, a sense of having missed one's vocation, strong prejudices, bitterness, resentment, are all productive of emotional strain and consequent deterioration of personal effectiveness, often re-acting upon the physical body in the form of strange and complex nervous diseases which elude ordinary diagnosis and treatment.

There are definite laws governing the emotional and mental life which it is wise for man to study, for in the measure in which he co-operates with these laws, in the measure in which his life works with evolution rather than against it, so will the rhythm of his life be in "tune with the Infinite."

Physical Health

It is so easy to become absorbed in our work, forgetting to take proper care of the body until a state of tension arises with all its irritabilities and ineffectiveness, and finally we arrive at a state of nervous exhaustion. In this condition misunderstandings often arise because we are unable to see things in the right perspective.

In these days of complex civilisation, when the nervous system is subjected to all kinds of new stress, new methods of healing are coming into being. The sensitive nervous organism is demanding its special methods of treatment such as rhythmic breathing, relaxation exercises, electro-therapy, colour treatment and osteopathy.

It is necessary, too, that we should sometimes get right away from the scenes of our daily work and contact an entirely new environment and people with different viewpoints from our own. Teachers, more than members of other professions, seem to have a habit of going about in gangs, spending holidays and week-ends together, with much "shop-talk," bringing very little refreshment with it.

Efforts should be made to obtain occasionally a few days' leave in order to visit other schools which are doing interesting work in the new methods. Again, every teacher ought to have three months holiday every few years in order to see the work in other countries. This is not possible for many at present, but the Fellowship hopes some day to have a fund at its disposal which will pay the expenses of such visits. Also exchanges can sometimes be arranged with teachers in other countries. We will open our columns for requests for such exchanges if readers will notify us of their needs.

Clothes

Then there is the question of clothes. In the rush of things some of us are apt to become indifferent to our appearance.

Yet beauty is a powerful agent of suggestion; it is perhaps the supreme evocation of the spirit. Beautiful colouring and line are a constant stimulus to the spirit, not only of the teacher but of her pupils who look at her for so many hours—especially during class teaching. Every class-room should have at least one object of beauty, a vase, a picture, a bowl of flowers—objects which can be interchanged with other classes from time to time.

The Emotions

We have to admit that there are thousands of women to-day who are forced by circumstances to forego their natural birthright of home-making. These deep racial instincts cannot be side-tracked (sublimated) without struggle, and they give rise to many of the emotional difficulties of the teacher, especially in boarding schools for one sex only. These difficulties are often sub-conscious and are not recognised, although the teacher is conscious of moods which she cannot understand. Self-analysis may reveal such moods as caused by thwarted instincts which we need not be ashamed of but which we should understand. It is essential to provide channels for creative self-expression, and therefore according to our temperaments should we definitely choose our re-creations, if we find ourselves without one that has grown up naturally with the years. It is to be hoped that in the future women will more and more carry on their own professions after marriage. This is especially desirable in the teaching profession.

A few of the more obvious channels for emotional expression are noted: **Amateur Dramatic Work,** evoking as it does new facets of the personality, bringing new realisations of character, elasticity of mood, a release from the smaller everyday self yet at the same time expanding and enriching it beyond measure. **The Speaking of Poetry** which brightens the emotions and charms the mind in a way that cannot be understood unless it has been tried. Beautiful words beautifully spoken have a very potent magic for the refreshing of the spirit, and if the poetry can be spoken in unison the united rhythm has a strong healing power for irritated and tired nerves. For another temperament *Dancing*, such as Dalcroze Eurhythmics, Margaret Morris or Greek dancing, re-establishes the natural rhythms and brings with it a keen sense of renewal and exhilaration. For others there is **Music, Painting, Choir Singing** and the **Crafts,** indeed anything that leads us into close association with beauty, for is not beauty in any form but perfect rhythm, and by our contact with it our own natures are brought nearer to that rhythm which brings Life itself to blossom?

Solitude

Watching the lives that some of us live we note the very little solitude, the few opportunities for self-communion that enter them. Yet solitude is a potent form of re-creation for some temperaments. It is so easy for teachers to become too extraverted. Usually they are capable organisers and much in demand. It is essential for all those who desire to keep fit in body and young in spirit to withdraw for a spell from concern with outer activities. This is especially necessary at periods when we think we are too busy to do so. Beware when you dream that a taxi is at your door and your trunk is not packed or that you have missed your train! Such dreams are sure warnings of undue extraversion. In fact, recurring dreams of any special type are very helpful in pointing towards some condition of the subconscious which may need overhauling and facing.

To spend a day completely alone in the privacy of one's own room is as refreshing to some as a week in the country. After a few hours of such solitude one finds that all the little "atmospheres" and suggestions which have been picked up from immediate associates, fall away and one comes to a layer of consciousness which is nearer the true Self. It is then, when one may be reading or writing or

employing oneself in some other pleasant way, that an idea or a vision will leap forth that is of lasting value. A few days' peaceful solitude with Nature should form part of one's summer holidays, and will bring more vitalisation than a month spent in the constant company of others . . . but to some this will not appeal at all!

A good plan is to start the day with a few moments' silence, of withdrawal deep into the Self, of reviewing in the light of the ideal the conduct of the previous day, of planning our attitude to certain events in the day before us. Thus withdrawing we see the march of events but as a series of experiences upon which to exercise the spirit, through which to grow in stature, increasing our self-realisation and expression in the service of others.

The Mind

The emotional and mental natures are so intimately bound together that what is good for the one will necessarily heal the other. Mental difficulties can perhaps be best understood by a study of the New Psychology* including the powerful method of self-creation known as Auto-suggestion. Much creative work can be done upon ourselves by ourselves, and it is only in chronic cases that an expert psychologist need be consulted.

We should aim at keeping open-minded, especially on those subjects which affect us deeply, remembering that everything changes and develops. If we would retain our youth we must continually expand our mental horizons, otherwise we become stranded in some backwater and feel the force of life as flowing against us rather than with us.

Particularly in teaching do we want to prevent rigidity of temperament. We all know the type of teacher who cannot unbend and join in a rag with the pupils. Consequently she is quite unable to help them in their times of difficulty. They will not go to her. This type is often only too conscious of its deficiencies but does not know how to help itself.

The Life of the Spirit

Perhaps the supreme channel of transmutation is provided by the urge of the spirit towards perfection, towards some ideal which may be recognised as unattainable in our own generation but in the light of which we *must* live. If we are born with a temperament which flames with natural idealism we know little of the problems that beset those who are not so blessed.

It may be that the secret of happiness is the old secret—to live for others rather than for the self. For all of us it is true that "we must dig where we stand," taking circumstances as we find them and so working upon ourselves and upon them that through the alchemy of the spirit, through the all-conquering power of working with the Law, we mould life nearer to the heart's desire. It is in the little daily conquests over self and circumstance that there comes the influx of power and light which reveals to us the reality of the life of the spirit.

We have used several thousand words in trying to say that which is incommunicable except perhaps by a great spiritual teacher. We are entirely in sympathy with the teacher who says that she has no time for her own self-culture. Her day is filled with arduous and often exhausting work; her evenings are taken up with preparation and corrections, and when they are finished she wants nothing but to tumble into bed. Many readers of *The New Era* are working in the old type of school where such a life is demanded of them. Those of us who are not so bound, who have greater opportunities in our schools, must work as much as we can to spread the New Ideals, so that by gradually permeating the educational systems of the world with them, the burden may be lifted for all. We realise that no teacher who is not free herself can produce the atmosphere of freedom which is so essential to the New

* *The New Era Lending Library contains most of the latest books on these subjects. Books are sent by post. Particulars from the Secretary.*

Education, and far more fundamental than actual methods of teaching. To attain such freedom is worth much self-sacrifice, but it is only to the pioneer spirits that such sacrifice will appeal. The path of the pioneer is ever a hard one, blazing the trail for others, but there is reward in knowing that through the small efforts everywhere the New Education movement is advancing all over the world, not only in private schools but also in State-aided schools—the strongholds of tradition.

In the English elementary schools, as far as we can gather, it is not so much the inspectors who impede the path of progress but the senior members of the profession who have been so long in one groove that they have failed to change with the times and have become rigid in ways which are suited to fifty years ago. In secondary schools it is the examinations demanding over-crowded curricula and much home work which hinder true education. But these drawbacks are temporary in nature and will give way before the pressure of the new spirit. Already all over the country can be seen schools, both private and State schools, in which the teacher has greater opportunities for initiative, imagination and creative expression in her work.

In these schools where there is more freedom the creative powers of the teacher are used fully in her work and her psyche is poised. Such teachers are continually thinking out new methods, devising new bits of apparatus, glimpsing new applications of psychological principles. That they have found themselves in their work is evident from the glowing happiness which they radiate.

Our problems may sound complex but in reality they are simple for no teacher should continue in the profession unless she has a real love of children. Given that love she can allow it to guide her. We are a band of those who love, seeking to release the life of the child from bondage, and in the wisdom that comes to us in our work we shall perhaps find the secret of our own freedom.

NOTES

Our German Bureau

We offer our grateful thanks to all those who have answered our appeal on behalf of the German bureau. The response has been "good in parts." Sufficient funds have been collected to make it possible to support the Bureau for the best part of 1926. Meanwhile we hope to receive further help to make the whole year secure. The largest contribution from England came as a result of a course of lectures delivered to teachers in London by Miss J. Mackinder, to whom our warmest thanks are due.

Editor's American Tour

Our Editor hopes to be in the States for the whole of April. She has been invited, by a group of American friends who met at the Heidelberg Conference, to lecture to various educational associations. Her work will be confined to the Eastern States, as the time is not sufficient to allow long journeys westwards. Enquiries concerning details of the tour should be sent to Miss G. Hartman, Progressive Education Association, 10, Jackson Place, Washington, D.C., who has kindly undertaken to be the chief organiser of our Editor's activities in the States.

Prof. Marcault's Tour in England and Scotland

We are happy to announce that Prof. Macault has consented to undertake a short lecture tour, visiting London (6th and 13th February), Leeds (8th February), and various towns in Scotland from 9th to 13th February. Prof. Marcault has not only made a study of the New Psychology and the Child—with special

reference to the Intuition and the New Type of Child (the Intuitive)—but he is also a member of the teaching profession and brings the fruits of his practical experience for us to share.

Some of the subjects with which Prof. Marcault will deal are:—*Psychological Types of Children, The Psychology of Punishment and Fear, Phases in the Evolution of Child Consciousness and Corresponding Methods of Education, A New (Intuitive) Type of Child and its Education.* Details of the London lectures appear on page ii.

We hope that readers in the districts to be visited by Prof. Marcault will make the lectures known as widely as possible (plenty of leaflets can be had on application), so that full advantage may be taken of this special opportunity of meeting one who adds to wisdom culled from practical experience a charm of personality that is rare.

Individual Time-Tables

Dr. O'Brien Harris who is well known as Principal of a large secondary school for girls in Clapton—which is organised on a basis of free time-tables according to the Howard Plan—has kindly consented to give a series of three lectures on her method on Saturday mornings early in the New Year. For full details see page i.

Dr. Jung in Africa

In order to make researches in the psychology of primitive types, Dr. Jung and his colleague, Dr. H. G. Baynes, have gone to Mount Elgon, Uganda, E. Africa, to study the uncivilised natives. They hope in this way to prove certain new psychological theories which they are in process of developing.

New Methods in Dundee

While in Scotland recently our Editor was very interested in the work of the Demonstration School attached to the Dundee Training College. An original scheme of individual work for small children has been evolved and the Dalton Plan is in use for the elder children.

Homework Abolished in Edinburgh School

A large girls' school in Edinburgh, under the direction of Miss Fraser Lee, has entirely abolished homework! This is revolutionary for Scotland, which on the whole is rather a big sinner in this matter of homework. The question of homework is also being considered by the education authorities of Argyll.

Occupational Therapy at Aberdeen

There is an interesting experiment in occupational therapy at the Aberdeen Royal Mental Hospital. The Superintendent, Dr. Dods Brown, who is much interested in the New Education movement, has been instrumental in starting this experiment. Miss Fulton has been appointed to the staff to instruct the patients in a variety of craft subjects. Occupational therapy was first started during the war with shell shocked soldiers and has since been developed in the States and applied with success to mental and general hospitals. Miss Fulton has taken a course at the Philadelphia School for Educational Therapy, the Course consisting of instruction in a variety of crafts, psychology and anatomy. Medical lectures and practice in teaching in a variety of hospitals was also included in the course.

At the Aberdeen Royal Mental Hospital a hut has been equipped for the purpose of instruction. Patients have one hour's instruction per day in classes of twelve. There are a variety of occupations available, including woodwork, stencilling, basket making, raffia work. The patients are allowed to select their work. During the three months in which the experiment has been tried remarkable results have been obtained. Patients show keen interest in the work, none of which has been spoiled. Such experiments are interesting from the point of view of the New Education, which has always emphasised the need for

crafts in the *mental* development of the young.

Craft work is beginning to take a definite place in our State schools. Under the London County Council, Craftwork Guilds have been formed as an attempt to reclaim some of the spirit of the craftsmen of the Middle Ages, and "to develop Educational Craftwork among teachers and children and to demonstrate the necessity of recognising this work as an essential factor in Education."

Obituary

Norman MacMunn, B.A. (Oxon), of Tiptree Hall, died suddenly at his Home School, San Remo, on October 8th, as the result of a chill. All interested in the New Education will realise what a great companion they have lost in their pioneering work for the New Age.

A Memorial Fund has been started to raise £190 with which to reprint Mr. MacMunn's book, *The Child's Path to Freedom*, and to bring from Italy the Card Indexes and other educational material used by Mr. MacMunn at his school. This material will be placed where it will be easy of access to those interested in Mr. MacMunn's principles and methods. Contributions should be sent to The Norman MacMunn Memorial Fund, 24, Berners Street, London, W. 1.

The Rationalist Education Circle

which was initiated in August, 1925, aims at promoting a system of Education which shall recognise the claims of historical and scientific truth, and of the human reason, of a moral and civic direction of studies, and of beauty and splendour in the presentation of historical, biographical and poetical themes.

All particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, Mr. F. C. Mundy, c/o Rationalist Press Association, Ltd., 4-6, Johnson's Court, Fleet Street, E.C.4.

New Values for Teacher and Parent

By Beatrice M. Hinkle, M.D.

(*Author of "The Re-creating of the Individual"*)

THE most significant interest of our time, because of its promise for the future of our race, is the concern manifested over the welfare and education of the child. It is as though the child has just been discovered, as indeed in the sense of the present activity it has been; and fresh knowledge of child development, new theories of education, and experimental schools follow each other in rapid succession.

No period of which we have historical knowledge has been as unique and fertile with possibilities and opportunities for the human race as the present one. Our scientific knowledge and methods have undermined and disrupted the traditional and organised ideas upon which we have so comfortably depended, and we can no longer follow a rule of thumb nor sail on a well-charted sea. Nowhere is this condition reflected more clearly than in our educational activities.

Both parents and educators are anxious that the child shall have all the advantages and opportunities that science has contributed and that were denied or lacking in the old methods. As a result, we are in the midst of a period of experimenting, questioning, and uncertainty.

Individuals have been thrust out of their preconceived notions, and forced to think in different terms, to become more conscious of themselves, and to seek for a new direction for life. This is necessarily a difficult and often painful process but, at the same time, it offers an unparalleled opportunity, especially for teachers and educators.

The understanding that psychoanalysis has given to us of the psychological determinants of our feelings, our prejudices, and our emotional reactions, and the knowledge, contributed by the laboratory, of the mechanisms of human behaviour as expressed by the conditioned reflex and habit formation, have given our minds something definite regarding ourselves with which to work. They contribute towards the attainment of a new attitude and fresh orientation concerning collective humanity, and in particular towards ourselves individually.

We of to-day are faced with the necessity for a complete reversal of our old collective conception that human beings are primarily and normally superior creatures, both mentally and morally, and only fallen from their true state. We now know that we mistook the collective superiority of our species, due to our possession of speech and a measure of self-consciousness, for individual superiority. In an attempt to explain our obvious ethical and moral crudities and imperfections we created the myth of having fallen from a former high estate, and as a consequence we must remain under the shadow of shame and disgrace until we can regain this lost perfection. The principal method of regaining this imaginary perfection we now know to be the process we call **repression.** By means of this mechanism all awareness of our own faults and weaknesses can be effectually kept out of consciousness, and we can live comfortably, as long as the repression holds, in the belief that we are free from the primitive impulses, desires and crudities that dominate others.

It is little short of revolution to reverse all this, and to recognise that instead of the phantasy of descent from a state of ideal goodness and superiority, the reality is that we as a species have come from an inferior state similar in many respects to that of other animals. Further, in comparison with our potentialities, of which we have become partly aware, we are still in a very crude and humble stage of development. Instead of expecting perfection of ourselves, or thinking in these terms, because our intuition and imagination are capable of creating ideals, we must grasp firmly the reality of our own status as a species. We must recognise the necessity of making an individual adaptation to the fact of our undeveloped and imperfect condition before we can make any real progress towards the goal of our striving, called variously, the adequate and full development of our great human potentialities, or the ascent to God and the ideal.

The stupendous illusion under which we have lived was certainly a psychological necessity of the past, and as such not to be despised. For us, however, it is merely an illusion to which we in our weakness cling, and as such it clogs our path on the way towards the new possibilities that stretch before us. Even for those who are able intellectually to throw off the old, false, binding notions, the emotional and affective bondage to the past still remains and influences in endless ways the attitudes and reactions of the individual. It is this which makes the winning of an inner freedom and a new attitude so difficult, for in the case of the adult the struggle entailed is nothing less than the necessary technic for gaining the **emotional maturity** and **self-determination** already intellectually conceived.

It is fairly well recognised to-day that the subjective relation of the child to his environment is the strongest influence in his life, permanently affecting him for good or ill; that it is not what we say to the child but what we do, not our intentions but our actions that produce the lasting effect. Nevertheless, there

appears little realisation by parents and teachers of the necessity for greater self-awareness and understanding of their affective personal problems, although they are the most important factors in the child's environment.

What matter whether the latest equipment or the newest theory is provided for the child if the mother or the teacher, who is the substitute for mother during a definite period of the day, is functioning from the basis of unconscious complexes, fears, and prejudices which are subtly revealed in behaviour and attitude?

Since we have become aware that the early years of the child's life are fraught with such importance and far-reaching consequence for his entire future, the burden of responsibility resting upon the parents and teachers has correspondingly increased. When it is realised that the psychological attitudes of the majority of people are entirely determined by the early environment and that the individual either unconsciously repeats them in slightly different forms, or else reacts against the emotional patterns of the parents; then the reason becomes obvious why the human race repeats with unending monotony the same mistakes, the same stupidities, generation after generation, regardless of the cultural changes that occur. Generations are bound to each other through affective psychic bonds; and even before the imperfect self-consciousness that human beings possess arises in the child, he is already conditioned by the emotional immaturities and conflicts of his parents. It is not too much to say that by far the larger number of even intelligent parents are emotionally immature, and at the same time quite blind to their own inadequate attitudes and reactions, which are indelibly stamping themselves upon the responsive organism of the child. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand the cause of the failure of our efforts to produce greater development, or even a satisfactory functioning, in the human race itself.

The help that we can give the children can only begin, in one way or another, with the present generation of adults. We who are actually or potentially parents or teachers must become sufficiently self-aware to realise that all of our efforts to understand the child and to deal with him more effectively lead back inevitably to our own inadequate psychic development, and to the primary necessity of a greater consciousness and understanding of ourselves. Conscious knowledge and intention play the smallest part in the training of little children; **unconscious behaviour and emotional attitudes dominate the field.**

The Teacher

The teacher occupies towards the child a position of peculiar significance. She is the first person whom the child contacts in his earliest stepping forth from the intimacy of the family circle, and her influence and effect upon him are only second to those of the parents. Furthermore, she possesses certain marked advantages over the parents for instead of being looked upon as a matter of course, and accepted without question, there is presented to the child the necessity of earning love and esteem. In addition, this first intimate social contact with adults outside of the family provides the opportunity for the child to transfer the parent imago to the teacher, thus widening his affective world, and marking the beginning of the movement towards his future social relations.

The teacher on her side possesses the advantage of an objective relation to the child; she is not his parent; her life is not bound up with his, therefore she can deal with him in a more detached way, and she is professionally trained for her task. Parents are never trained for their task and besides there are untold numbers of parents for whom all of our new knowledge is of no avail. Their children must necessarily depend for any real understanding and help upon the teacher, who should be able to bring to them not only new ideas and methods of

meeting their needs, but a new and more highly evolved personality.

However, the teacher also possesses an emotional pattern with unconscious needs and dissatisfactions; inevitably when unrecognised and unsolved, these personal problems intrude themselves into her relation with her pupils. At least they affect her attitude and personality in its social implications, so that her real advantages over the parents are nullified for the child, who merely identifies himself with, or reacts against, an additional set of emotional immaturities, instead of obtaining some release and freedom from his original conditioning.

This is the serious problem that is presented to the teacher; and not only for her own sake, but for the sake of her professional responsibility, she needs a knowledge of her own psychological attitudes and conflicts, and of the unconscious factors determining her action patterns quite as much as she needs a knowledge of those of the child. Prejudices fed from unconscious sources maintain their strength undiminished, and influence behaviour and attitude in spite of a possible intellectual freedom. Frequently this only serves to render consciousness more blind to the living reality. It has often seemed to me that the tremendous emphasis placed upon the conception of freedom for the child by the modern teacher and school represents the unconscious need in the adult who is still in bondage, and who attempts to find by means of the opposite swing of the pendulum the way to a vicarious freedom through the child.

The mistaken notion of freedom is responsible for many foolish and exaggerated tendencies in relation to the child to-day, for it does not seem to be realised that the only real freedom that exists must be won by the individual himself, whether pupil, teacher or parent, and cannot be presented as a free gift to anyone. Following impulses and allowing oneself to be dominated by them is not freedom but slavery of the most despotic kind.

On the other hand, many teachers are afraid of the new ideas of freedom, and find it most difficult to withdraw the dominating influence of their personality sufficiently to allow the child to function from his own needs, or to discover for himself what is desirable or undesirable.

All this leads one to realise the extreme complexity of human psychology and its subtle and indirect ways of functioning. No longer is it possible to consider ourselves simple beings for whom a conscious valuation of right or wrong provides an adequate solution of our problems.

The time has come for a deepening of consciousness and an objective valuation of our real motives and inner achievement in terms of reality instead of those of phantasy or wish. The practical problem that arises whenever a new demand is recognised as desirable, is how is the need to be met? What can be done about it?

Perhaps the greatest difficulty in all psychological effort lies just in this matter of doing. For it is not a problem primarily of doing, but a condition of being, and the gaining of a new mental attitude. Out of being rises the adequate doing. The most necessary attainment lies in an inner change of values. When one can sincerely and deeply feel—not intellectualise about it—that the most important task in life is one's own redemption from psychic bondage to old habits and traditional notions, and the development of one's latent potentialities, the first step has been taken in the new direction. When this attitude has been achieved, one can face unflinchingly whatever weaknesses, insincerities, or undesirable reactions are revealed, for one knows oneself to be only "human all too human."

Becoming Conscious

The next step on the way is the becoming conscious—the facing within oneself of the actual psychic condition as revealed in free feelings, in thoughts, and in actions. All the thoughts and

feelings that come unbidden and involuntarily into the mind should be permitted and then scrutinised as objectively as possible, instead of disregarding them or living in them as phantasy. To spend a little time quietly alone with one's self each day, and at other times to observe carefully one's own remarks after making them, one's reactions and attitudes, will increase consciousness, and allow one to learn something about oneself. To be sure, this will only touch the surface, the conscious mind; the deeper layers, the unconscious, will remain hidden. But I know from long experience that this exercise is invaluable, and often brings a much freer and easier attitude, for it allows the possibility of constructive action to appear in the life instead of dull pain, resignation, or a wasteful "busyness" and blind restlessness.

The common objections made to this method, that it produces that fearful bogey, introspection, whereas one should "forget oneself and think of others," need not be considered.

There is all the difference in the world between willed and purposeful self-consciousness and the obsessional form of introspection which, all unbidden, dominates the individual, and is a valueless and destructive process. The advice to forget oneself and think of others is one of those blind, outworn shibboleths which are endlessly repeated without insight or understanding. As a matter of fact, some individuals, functioning by means of the extraverted mechanism, blindly act in this way by virtue of their psychic processes. They identify themselves with the object to such an extent that they are frequently completely unconscious of themselves. This is not a virtue, but an instinctive mechanism, just as that possessed by the opposite type, the introverts, who are never able to forget themselves. Both attitudes are collective mechanisms, and neither bears any relation to a real individual achievement.

There has been an effective technic evolved in psycho-analysis, and in competent hands it offers to the individual the opportunity for freeing his creative energy from its fixations and limiting bonds. It is not possible safely to touch the unconscious aspect of the psyche without expert aid, for a disturbance is always produced when the unconscious is touched and the individual may become disorientated. Nevertheless, a great deal is possible for the individual in preliminary work through earnest study, self-examination and the use of intuition. The teacher may also learn much from the reactions and attitudes observed in his pupils which can be made of use for the knowledge of the self.

A great service and a great opportunity awaits the teachers of to-day; the only gateway to that service and that opportunity lies through knowledge of one's self. The teachers, who really belong to the family milieu of the child, and who are at the same time separate and distinct, are the ones who should lead the way to new values in humanity, and develop that creative spirit in relation to their work which the artist exhibits in relation to his. To substitute conscious effort towards the goal of self-evolution, instead of helplessly submitting to the immeasurably slow process of unconscious evolution, is a task worthy of the best energies of woman or man.

Psychological Release and Re-Creating the Teacher

By Cedar Paul

(Co-author of "Creative Revolution," "Proletcult," etc.)

SHATTER it to bits! The existing social order, I mean, not the unhappy teacher. I fear we shall have to begin with that, before the new Days of Creation can begin. Sounds rather revolutionary, doesn't it? I can't help that, can I? Either we think that God has made everything for the best in the best of all possible worlds; or else we think, with Tess, that we live in a blighted world, in a sorry scheme which we must do our utmost to re-create. If you think that —you are a revolutionist!

Take three little matters in which the existing social order imposes a cribbed, cabined, and confined mentality upon teachers.

1. Celibacy. There are few points upon which the modernists have broken away from mediævalist outlooks more thoroughly than upon the matter of sex life. Thanks above all to the teachings of the New Psychology, we now know that when sexual conations are persistently repressed, instead of being fulfilled or sublimated, the results are disastrous to the health of the body or the mind. A few great spirits leading a cloistered life, have been able to sublimate so grandly as to produce work of permanent value to mankind. But, generally speaking, monks and nuns (when not secret debauchees in the realm of fact or fancy!) have been sterile in mind as well as in body. And yet, though monasticism as an organised social institution is no longer in high favour, the bulk of child education is still carried on by compulsory celibates. I need not labour the point, nor dwell upon some of the grosser evils that result from this unfortunate state of affairs. All I wish to put forward is that one of the first ways in which "release" of paralysing inhibitions must be secured for teachers is by the removal of the barriers to a healthy sexual companionship. But the barriers in question are part of the established order of society. . . .

2. Living-in. A veiled monasticism persists under another semblance. The celibacy barrier does not affect the two sexes equally. In the case of the female elementary school teachers it is almost absolute, whereas the males can marry if they please (and their salaries permit!) But among middle-school teachers of both sexes, few are sufficiently well paid to venture on marriage, and a large proportion of them "live-in." This living-in trouble affects them very seriously, whereas elementary school teachers make their homes away from the building in which they have to pass so many hours of their lives. Like servants and the majority of shop assistants, middle-school teachers often have no independent life out of working hours. For practical purposes they might almost as well be in a monastery or a convent. They do not get away from the school atmosphere when class work is over. For them there is little or no relaxation. They are always "in uniform," as it were, and can rarely "stand at ease." They are on their best behaviour before the pupils; or they are in close association with fellow teachers who may not be congenial companions. Thus they are always on the stretch. "Release" can only be achieved by abolishing the living-in system. For this we may await the coming of the coccigrues—or, "shatter it to bits." We are back to the remedy of Omar's anarchist once more. In some of the New Schools the difficulty is being met by having a staff of non-resident teachers; but the universalisation of this somewhat costly method is nowhere in sight.

3. Education for the Republic of Plato. Another cause of inhibitions (and apostles of New School ideas are perhaps more frequent victims than others) is that

many teachers, consciously or unconsciously, dread lest they may train their pupils to be out of touch with the world in which these younglings will have to live when the joyous school days are over. Thomas Henry Huxley recognised this difficulty long ago. It oppressed him in his personal life. "If I train my children as I should like to train them, they will be pariahs. I must not make them differ unduly from the average of their generation." Modern teachers are often afraid, and rightly afraid, of training for the Republic of Plato those who will have to spend their lives amid the Dregs of Romulus. The recognition of this difficulty (again, a conscious or unconscious recognition) is apt to have a numbing effect upon teachers, and to inhibit their activities precisely in proportion to the degree in which their own minds are touched to fine issues. Here, once more, "release" for the teacher can hardly be secured, if at all, in the prison-house of the existing social order. Shatter it to bits!

How, then, can the teacher, despite these manifold disadvantages, secure that spiritual poise, and retain or increase that richness of temperament, which help so much in carrying out the aims and ideals of the New Education, in creating the genial atmosphere so essential to happy school life? How can teachers overcome their prejudices, free themselves from their repressions, and allay their fears? Who or what is to help them in these difficult tasks?

I believe the *New Era* is a non-political magazine. But, in the problem of education, as in all other social problems, we jostle against the crux of revolution directly we leave the surface of things and delve down to fundamentals. Can nothing be done here and now, without turning the world upside down?

Well, I fancy a good deal might be done to relieve the inhibitions which impair the teacher's usefulness, if every teacher were to have his or her kinks straightened out by a fairly thorough psychoanalysis. We ought all to be "spring-cleaned" in this way soon after attaining maturity. But perhaps this suggestion will, likewise, be regarded as revolutionary. Beyond question, the practical difficulties, financial and other, bulk very large!

Short of this, much can be achieved by personal effort, and by carefully directed reading both for pleasure and for study. We must all of us remember that POWER LIES WITHIN OURSELVES. The data of the New Psychology are filtering down into the ordinary levels of popular intelligence, and in many ways we are less restricted than our parents and grandparents were. Every teacher who takes the teaching profession seriously must be a psychologist, and ought to be a New Psychologist. Only thus can we know ourselves and know the people, young and old, with whom we come into contact. The understanding of the source of some of the prevailing inhibitions which I have sketched in this brief article, will be an aid to "release." The celibate teacher who has to live-in, will be on guard against the narrowing and blunting influences of the situation. The teacher who is guiding to-morrow's children will learn (while avoiding extravagances) that the fear of setting pupils apart from their generation is over-strained; for the averaging influence of the home and of the general social environment will outweigh the influences of any school and any teacher.

Lastly, the private study of the New Psychology will usually enable the teacher—in default of analysis by an expert—to know some of his or her own complexes, and the knowledge will bring "release." In addition, such study tends to make us infinitely patient and charitable with others' foibles, and this toleration prevents friction and heartache. Release through self-knowledge, through escape from repressions, through an understanding of the workings of the unconscious mind: this is the modern counterpart of the "Know thyself" of ancient Greek philosophy.

What Is Emotion?

By Goodwin B. Watson

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THE Inquirer entered a room where all the world's psychologists were gathered. Some of them were relaxed in armchairs, while others bent over statistical tables or manipulated curious instruments, or observed babies or white rats. For the most part, they clustered in groups about some individual, usually about one with a bright halo. Occasionally groups joined together or dissolved to re-form.

The Inquirer broke the busy silence, explaining that he was interested in finding out something about emotion. "Everybody from before Homer until after Elinor Glyn has found emotion interesting to talk about. After all, what is emotion?"

Several psychologists immediately threw up their hands, shrugged their shoulders, and with a twisted smile returned to important work. A few looked puzzled, several started to speak. The Intellectualists explained that emotions were states of mind resulting from the presence or absence of harmony and equilibrium among ideas. The Introspectionists mentioned affective elements and total states of consciousness. Behaviorists talked of arteries, smooth muscles, striped muscles, glands, and the autonomic nervous system. One psychologist with an accent not quite English and not quite Bostonian explained that emotions were the "inner lining," and conscious aspect of the instincts. Someone with a German accent, speaking for a group the Inquirer had not noticed at first, explained that emotion was the feeling aspect of every action, intelligent as well as instinctive or habitual. Every complete, unified conduct pattern, when viewed from the "I" side, he called emotional.

The Inquirer tried, politely, to conceal his confusion. "May I say then, that emotions are things I get very much upset about, feelings, passions, desires, and drives?"

Immediate babel! "Not feelings. Feeling is dulled by emotion." "Not passion. Passion is an *idée fixe* in the affective realm, lying midway between emotion and insanity." "Surely emotion must not be confused with the urges and drives of life. It is when these are baulked or thwarted that emotions appear. Pronounced emotions are the opposite of vigorous urges. A man with pronounced emotional reactions is a sentimentalist, a man of strong urges finds no room for sentiment."

"I beg your pardon," apologised the Inquirer. "I don't quite understand, but let us avoid such terms. Would you describe an emotion for me?"

Several biologists and physiologists began, but were interrupted by a psychologist with an unusually bright halo. "Were we to go through the whole list of emotions which have been named by men and study their organic manifestations we should but ring the changes on certain typical elements. Rigidity of this muscle, relaxation of that, constriction of arteries here, dilation there, breathing of this sort or that, pulse slowing or quickening, this gland secreting, that one dry, and so on. We should find, moreover, that our descriptions had no absolute truth, that they applied only to the average man; that every one of us, almost, has some personal idiosyncrasy of expression. . .

As far as this 'scientific psychology' of the emotions goes, I should as lief read verbal descriptions of the shape of the rocks on a New Hampshire farm, as toil through them again!"

The Inquirer gratefully decided to abandon definition and description and to ask for examples. "For instance," he said, "is excitement an emotion?" Some replied that it was the core of all true emotion; while others declared it was an abstraction, not in itself an emotion at all. The Inquirer tried a new line. "What about things like a toothache, enjoyment of perfume, laziness, dependence, complexes, a guilty conscience, the glow of benevolence, the rapture of the artist, the passion of the gambler, the reverence of the kneeling worshipper, the jump of the startled girl, the fascination exercised by some design or melody, the inferiority feeling which some people seldom lose—are all these emotion?"

"Yes, all of them."

"No, none of them."

"Yes, certain ones may be called emotions if they are sufficiently intense."

The Inquirer made another start. "Well, can we at least agree on a few like joy, grief, love, anger, and fear?"

"Not grief!" said the Boston psychologist.

"Joy is not an emotion, either," another joined with him.

"Love, only in the narrow sense of erotic passion," said a third.

"Oh, no," answered a follower of a calm Austrian psychiatrist around whom the followers clung closely, although others seemed to avoid him. "Love makes all the wheels of life go around. Denied one expression Love finds another or yet another. The attachment of the mother to her child, the teacher to his pupils, the musician to his piano, the priest to his God and church are all parts of the manifold expression of the deep emotion of love."

At that there was a great clamour, and through it all the Inquirer caught remarks about "libido," "the will to power," "a sense of organic inferiority," "infantile dependence," each speaker seeming very positive that he had the key to the whole situation. Reluctantly the Inquirer gave up the attempt to find out what emotions are, and asked about their location. "Is there an organ of the emotions? Were the writers of Scripture correct in naming the bowels, or the poets correct in talking of the heart?"

"Both," said two figures, one American and one Danish. "All the body is the seat of emotion. We feel sorry because we cry, angry because we tremble. If we fancy some strong emotion and abstract from our consciousness of it all the feelings of its bodily symptoms, we find we have nothing left behind." A great surgeon agreed, pointing out that fear and Graves' disease were exactly alike in symptoms, cause, and treatment. "No one," said he, "can be philanthropic with jaundice; no one suffering from Graves' disease can be generous." One social psychologist suggested that the location of an emotion determined its character; pleasant ones involving the cranial-sacral nervous system, unpleasant ones the sympathetic. Others objected that joy, mirth, and excitement surely are not unpleasant, but do involve the sympathetic nervous system. One dreamer suggested that different glandular responses determined each emotion, but one who had studied glands for years answered, "The glandular changes are very much alike for all emotions. There are few afferent fibres in the autonomic system, and probably a very low sensitiveness in the viscera. Viscera changes merely contribute to the emotional complex more or less indefinite but still pertinent feelings of disturbance in organs of which we are not usually conscious."

During this discussion a smaller group, containing some very old psychologists and some younger ones, was protesting against the idea that the emotion was a consequence of the bodily reaction. A great biologist joined them, saying, "Although the emotion of love, for instance, which a mother has for her

infant is one of the strongest of which the human mind is capable, it can hardly be said to have any proper or peculiar means of expression." Recent experiments were cited to show that emotions could be identified in less than half the time it took the sluggish viscera to move; and that even when the nerve connections between brain and lower bodily centres were severed, the usual signs of anger and excitement remained. Several of them mentioned the optic thalamus in the brain as the most probable seat of emotion.

The Inquirer was speculating on how it happened that men had all these complex emotional characteristics. He asked about it. The first answer was made by the great biologist. Surely these expressions did not exist for their own sake, but were the modified remnants of acts which had once been essential to life. He showed how the uncovered teeth, bristling hair, clenched fist, change in circulation and breathing, every grimace, in fact, could be understood as useful in a much lower and more animal-like stage of existence. The great surgeon agreed. "When our progenitors came in contact with any exciting element in their environment, action ensued, then and there. Civilized man is in auto-captivity to convention and custom, and as a consequence strong stimuli result in emotion rather than in action. A phylogenetic fight is anger; a phylogenetic flight is fear; a phylogenetic copulation is sexual love."

"But," protested the Inquirer, "why then so much emotion to-day, since conditions of life do not include many primitive stimuli?" The social psychologists answered that we seldom respond emotionally, to-day, on the basis of original nature. We are miserable at this event, alarmed over a new theory, disgusted by a certain practice, bitter or contemptuous toward a certain nation, because of social training. Step by step connections originally belonging to strange animals in trees and caves, had become attached to war propaganda, mystical verse, or automobiles.

The Inquirer grew thoughtful. "Granted that we could thus connect up emotions by education, why do it? Are these vestiges of life in the wild, wet woods really useful to-day?"

One energetic psychologist answered immediately that the presence of emotion, popularly supposed to increase effectiveness, really decreases it; whether the activity be mechanical, intelligent, or even so largely primitive as boxing. The psychologist with the German accent protested that one of the strongest and best of emotions was that which kept the scientist at work through long experiments and involved computations. Most of them seemed agreed, however, that strong emotions passed a certain "critical point" beyond which disorganisation took place so rapidly that the result was well described by such terms as "blind rage," "paralysed with fear," "beside himself with grief," and "madly in love." One younger psychologist suggested that the remedy for inertia was not the arousal of emotion which would be temporary, exhausting, and probably less efficient, but rather was to be found in better hygiene, better habits of eating, sleeping, working, and playing. "A strong emotion acts like a drug (for adrenalin and other glandular secretions are drugs), and has the habit-forming effects of such artificial stimulation. If we rely this week on emotional outbursts to get us at our tasks, we will the more surely require them the next." The surgeon now confirmed this. He produced convincing evidence that emotion weakens and sometimes permanently destroys important brain cells, just exactly as would physical exhaustion, certain poisons, hemorrhages, and surgical shocks. He explained why any nerve strain, such as anxiety, love, or hate, produces loss of weight, nervousness, indigestion, etc. "We are now as we were in primitive times, essentially motor beings, meeting the dangers of our environment by a motor response. This implies the integration of our entire being for action, involving the activity of certain glands, such as the adrenals, the

thyroid, the liver, etc., which throw into the blood stream substances which help to form energy, but which, if no muscular action ensues are harmful elements in the blood. It thus becomes clear why an emotion is more harmful than action. . . Any agency that can sufficiently inspire faith and dispel worry, whether that agency be mystical, human or divine, will at once stop the body-wide stimulations and inhibitions which cause lesions that are as truly physical as is a fracture."

The Inquirer felt that it was clear that some kinds and degrees of emotion were harmful, so he asked, "Can we eliminate those, and redirect the energy into channels more useful in this age?"

"No," said some, "if you change the expression, you change the emotion. Emotion is determined by the form of outlet, it is not vague energy ready to flow along any channel. New behaviour will wear its own emotional cloak, not that of a primitive predecessor. You must kill off some and build a satisfaction with others, if you are to change conduct."

Others immediately objected but it seemed to the Inquirer that the objectors were using emotions to mean those drives which do not flaunt the visible signs of the sympathetic nervous system, but which operate in cool, dark, underground channels, manifesting themselves in distant devices. In that sense he could agree with an editor who said, "Emotional habits could be so formed as to give integrity to personality and to make for ease of adjustment and the free play of ability rather than conflict, frustration, unhappiness, and ill-health."

The Inquirer spoke to the surgeon. "Something you said suggested that restraint produced the bad effects. I have been wondering about that. Is it better for me to give way to emotions and get them out of my system, or to control myself and hold back the expression?"

An acrimonious debate immediately arose, in which many who were not psychologists crowded into the room to participate. The surgeon had answered, "Action by all means. Emotions are injurious only when and because they are not followed by muscular activity to consume the poisonous stimulants." The psychoanalysts joined their divided groups together to emphasise their experience that if an emotion be dammed in its normal outlet, it would not disappear. It would remain somewhere,—in the subconscious, said some,—to dominate future behaviour and perhaps to find peculiar and undesirable outlets.

The great biologist took the other side. "He who gives way to violent gestures will increase his rage; he who does not control the signs of fear will experience fear in a greater degree; and he who remains passive when overwhelmed by grief loses the best chance of recovering elasticity of mind." The American psychologist with the bright halo compromised. "Perhaps when the current is strong enough to strike into a pathological path if the normal one be dammed, then an immediate outburst may be best." (Some cried, "It always does so.") "But," he continued, "refuse to express a passion and it dies. Count ten before venting your rage and its occasion seems ridiculous. Smooth the brow, brighten the eye, speak in a major key, and pass the genial compliment, and your heart must be frigid indeed if it does not thaw." A sociologist spoke for the first point of view, but with even more force. Not only did he feel that existing passions needed free expression, but that much of the nerve strain and restlessness of the age was caused by baulked disposition, because we did not stimulate emotional potentialities often enough. Many ministers protested vigorously at this licentious notion.

To Have It or Not to Have It?

"Come," said the Inquirer, "I must not trouble you longer. This final question. On the whole, what do emotions contribute to life in the modern world? Would we be better off without them?"

"Yes," answered several, pointing out

that all the contributions we call civilisation had come by the scientific process of substituting intelligent, objective calculations for blind emotional behaviour. Others objected. Said one, "It is well to live richly and taste deeply of the joys and sorrows of existence." Said another, "These subtle and refined forms which intellectualists regard as superior are really only a feeble impoverishment of feeling." A Boston psychiatrist clearly agreed. "The pleasure value of life to-day is, as a result of that very process, less than it was in primitive times. Pleasure values tend to decrease as one's desires are further removed from the direction of the fundamental instinctive urges. The cave dwellers commanded the fundamental means for enjoyment in greater measure than the average man to-day." He added that, since the source of true joy was in the striving and not the obtaining, comfort and three meals a day took out of life the zest which primitive men knew when every meal was an intense emotional experience, similar only to what we know when true love has overcome all obstacles. The first group spoke again, urging that while emotional life might be more intense, it was temporary, exhausting and likely to leave a dark brown taste behind, whereas refined, sublimated, calmer joys could become increasingly satisfying through the years.

The Inquirer thanked them all and turned to depart. Then one spoke, a psychologist whose halo had not been recently polished. He suggested that the Inquirer leave psychologists and study elsewhere. "In our day and civilisation," said he, "the hot life of feeling is remote and decadent. Culture represses, intellect saps the root. The life of feeling has its prime in youth, and we are prematurely old and too often senile in heart. What does the psychologist of the study know of hate that makes men mad or bestial, of love that is not only uncalculating, but is stronger than life, of fear that shakes the pulses, and courage that faces death in its cruellest forms, unflinchingly? We have experienced no soul-quaking reconstruction of our souls like Paul, Augustine, or Luther. We are anæmic and more prone to deny than to believe, to speculate than to do, and we turn to novels and the theatre for the catharsis of our emotions. What we have felt is second-hand, bookish, shop-worn, and the heart is parched and bankrupt."

The Inquirer had already left for the movies.

Note.—The points of view expressed by the following writers have been mentioned directly or indirectly:—

Adler, Allport, Bain, Baldwin, Berman, Burnham, Cannon, Crile, Darwin, Freud, Gates, Hall, Herbart, James, Jastrow, Jung, Koffka, Lange, McDougall, Ribot, Sherrington, Spencer, Thorndike, Wallas, Ward, Watson, Wells, Williams, Woodworth.

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"The heart and soul of growing childhood . . . is ultimately the only guide into the heart of the new education which is to be, when the school becomes what Melanchthon said it must be—a true workshop of the Holy Ghost—and what the new psychology, when it rises to the heights of prophecy, foresees as the true paradise of restored intuitive human nature."

G. STANLEY

Relaxation and Reserve Energy

By E. Adelaide Gardner, B.A.

THE question of health for teachers is unfortunately one which needs constant consideration. Not only are they very much overworked by large classes and unsuitable conditions, but many of them are conscientious people who take their responsibility heavily, who use more energy than is necessary for their work because they are not content with doing their best and leaving it. Anxiety is the curse of teachers' lives, for the anxious mind reacts quickly upon the nervous system and produces many strains in the physical body.

To do his best work the teacher should always have at his disposal a fund of reserve energy; it is only by teaching from the current account, so to speak, and not drawing on deposit, that the best results are obtained. Yet it is all too common for teachers to be working on their last ounce of energy, fearing a breakdown if not actually on the verge of one. The study and practice of physical relaxation is of great importance to professional people of this group, as well as to other workers, for by the simple economy of energy which results from muscular and nervous relaxation, the reserve fund can be left untouched, the nerves kept in relatively healthy condition, and the health held secure in spite of strain.

The word "relaxation" is used in this article to express a positive condition and not merely one of utter slackness. M. Coué rightly calls the condition "contention." It is to him the ideal suggestible state. It is consciousness inhibiting conflicting activity, clearing the field for action and allowing the one right movement or condition alone to assert itself.

This is the normal way in which all healthy activity takes place, as was proved during the war through the study of muscular wounds. In muscular activity we actually flex the arm by inhibiting the exterior muscles, and when we extend the arm we do it by the inhibition of the flex muscles. Action therefore takes place by the inhibition of activity in the opposite muscles. More recent experiment has shown that there is a third type of material called posture material in which some as yet hardly recognised activity takes place when both extensor and flex muscles are inhibited. During rest or relaxation, this third use of the muscles asserts itself in which two opposite activities are balanced and reduced to poise. This condition is one of great value as both of the active aspects of the body are subordinated to a third for which the word poise is the best description. All students of psychology know that the true condition of poise is the most effective point of vantage from which teaching or any other work is done. The whole practice of relaxation is directed towards arriving at a condition of poise.

In the first instance it is necessary to realise that we are not relaxed. One of the tell-tale points in most teachers is the back of the neck between the shoulders. Watch the state of tension which is constantly found in this part of the body. If you cannot watch it in yourself at first, observe it in others. Constant tension in this region is directly responsible for many headaches and digestive troubles, as important nerves spring thence from the spine to the shoulders and the head, and these are pinched by the muscular tension involved in slightly raised shoulders or the head held at an unnatural angle so that the chin is a little up in the air.

A sharp angle at the elbow is also common in teachers. When the arm is not being used for definite purposes such

as pointing to something on the board, significant gesture or other demonstration, it should be allowed to rest quietly at the side, on the back of the chair or on the desk. There is no need for tension of the arm muscles in order to teach a class, and it is obvious that the expenditure of energy involved owing to such useless tension weakens the reserve at the individual's disposal.

Once we have become aware of such unconscious strains the more difficult task is to get rid of them. To do this thoroughly involves something like a change of consciousness on the part of the teacher. The preliminary steps, however, are physical and practical.

The following exercises will be found useful. If two or three will practise them together great advantage and a good deal of fun will be obtained.

(1) Preliminary Breathing Exercise

Stand with the weight on the balls of the feet, the spine upright but not strained, arms at the sides, quite relaxed. If necessary, practise relaxation first but after a little practice the right position should come readily. The arms and head should not be tense at any time. Bring the wrists together in front of the thighs, *easily, without strain,* and exhale. Raise the arms slowly sidewise, about 12 or 18 inches from the sides, the wrists again leading the way. Inhale during this movement. Repeat, exhaling as the arms are lowered, and increasing the sidewise lift of the arms, taking a deeper breath. Continue increasing the upward sweep, exhaling with each downward movement, until with about seven breaths the arms are over the head and a very deep breath is easily taken. The movements should be done without apparent effort, and rhythmically. The deep breath and full movement of the arms can be repeated several times. This exercise can be taken even by people with chest and heart trouble, provided the arms are not raised above shoulder height and the breath is not taken too deeply.

This is the simplest form of breathing exercise and is an excellent preliminary to relaxation practice.

(2) Simplest Forms of Relaxation Exercises

(*a*) Stand as for the breathing exercise. Raise one arm straight up from the shoulder over the head. Drop the hand at the wrist, so that the hand hangs limply down. Next drop the arm from the elbow *keeping the elbow raised as before.* The forearm should now hang loosely downwards. Then relax the shoulder muscles and let the whole arm swing downwards limply. Do not bring the arm to repose, but let it swing where it falls until it comes gradually to rest. Repeat with other arm. (*b*) Now drop the head slowly forward on the chest and raise it slowly to position, keeping the chin well in, but without strain. Let the head fall gradually back as far as it can without strain; roll it around on the shoulders in either direction, alternating to avoid giddiness. Bring it back to position in the front, raising the head very slowly till the spine is upright. (*c*) Now drop the head slowly forward on the chest and continue relaxing the spine joint by joint, until the shoulders fall forward and the upper part of the body is gradually lowered until it hangs heavily from the hips. *Keep the head and shoulders relaxed throughout.* Swing the hips slightly so that the upper body sways from side to side. Now slowly re-energise the spine from the hips upwards, joint by joint. The body should come gradually into position, *the head last of all* being raised upright from the chest. A long breath as the body is raised is very refreshing. (*d*) Complete relaxation can be practised lying down. Lie on a flat bed or couch, or on the floor. *Be comfortable,* but lie as flat as possible. Lift the hands and arms, relaxing them, as before. Roll the head from side to side. Roll on one side and then let the body fall back limply on the back. Repeat for the other side. If a friend can assist, the legs and arms can be lifted and dropped. No hurt will

come if the body is really relaxed. The head should not be handled by another unless specially trained. A few deep breaths when the body is fully relaxed are very refreshing.

Exercises similar to these will be found along with many others in *Power through Repose*, by A. P. Call.* People suffering from fatigue and nervous exhaustion could not do better than practise them.

Exercises like these take a certain amount of time and should be practised early in the morning, during breaks in the school day or at night, but there is a simple form of relaxation or quiet which can be practised at any time, anywhere. For instance, if you are travelling home in 'bus, tube, or train, rather tired with the day's work, relax the whole body, put your case or bags where they are not going to bother you, sit well back in the seat, with the spine poised, and let the burdens of the day fall away from you. Try to ease the mind as you ease the body. Take two or three deep breaths quietly, without too much effort, and then deliberately relax the eyeballs, back of the neck, shoulders, elbows and hands. Feel the body supported in the seat, relax the knees and feet, and when you imagine that you have let go as much as you can, take two or three more quiet breaths and relax *still more*. It is astounding how much refreshed the physical body will be after ten minutes of such rest.

It is necessary, in order to get the best results, to distinguish between muscular and nervous relaxation, It is possible for the muscles to be eased off and apparently slackened while the nerves are still alert and even slightly strained. To get quick and thorough rest the life forces must be consciously withdrawn from the limbs, and even from the trunk of the body and the spine so that they feel heavy, and sag inertly if lifted by someone else. The condition to aim at is one in which conscious life seems to be, and probably is, withdrawn to a tiny pin point of awareness somewhere in the head. The whole body otherwise should be reduced to a deeply restful inertia. The fact that this inertia is voluntarily imposed and sustained appears to give it a peculiar healing power. A few deep breaths taken very quietly with the body in this condition have an astonishingly refreshing effect.

It will be found that the teacher who deliberately practises relaxation once or twice a day, and develops along with this the habit of relaxing the body whenever he becomes aware of tension, gains not only a reserve of physical energy but also a certain calmness of mind. The worrying type finds relaxation very difficult and would probably need some form of mental exercises tending to thought control as well as the physical exercises in order to achieve a perceptible result. Persistence wins, however, in every case.

The philosophy of relaxation is well grounded. It is based on the old idea which in the East is called detachment, and in Christian countries is called recollectedness. The pairs of opposites, desire and fear, affection and hate, etc., dominate the little self. Poise or calm is the need of the higher consciousness which "rides serene between the wings of the great bird of life." It is perfectly true that as one learns to use the body more quietly and not to be dominated by it, the higher consciousness is able to express itself far more clearly and brings with it a flood of revivifying life which can affect every cell of the physical body.

Naturally, the time to begin to teach the habit of relaxation is when the body is young. This has been recognised in a fairly recent physical training syllabus issued by the Board of Education. Activity should be followed by rest, and positions of strain or of alert posture should be followed by "stand at ease." The child should be carefully shown what stand-at-ease really means, and the slackness of the whole body should be as much admired as good extended positions.

Watch the child who is not relaxed, for he is almost certainly suffering

and Hancock, 3/6.

from some psychological complex. It may be due to emotion, to disturbed feeling of various kinds, or to mental disturbance. Teach such children as far as you can to rest the body while the head is doing its work. Such exercises as head rolling, stretching the arms out, and then relaxing them, swinging the arms lightly, etc., help to ease off nervous strain and react on the mental and emotional conditions. Watch sitting position not only for the spine but for the poise of the whole body. Many breathing exercises, eurhythmic exercises, etc., are excellent because the body must be natural and relaxed while using them. The child can be taught the value of relaxation by picturing the flow of vitality as an actual stream of energy along the lines of the nerves. Wherever there is muscular tension there is a block or check to this stream, and the result is that the body cannot do its work. If the child winds its feet round the feet of its desk, it can be taught that it is using energy in its legs which it needs in its head.

The teacher who is interested in the psychology of his children, as all good teachers should be, will find that a study of muscular and nervous tension will reveal to him many hidden psychological problems. Head and neck tensions are rather mental, elbow tensions reveal self-consciousness, shyness or aggressiveness. Shoulder tensions result from a sense of responsibility, knees and feet are often contracted through fear, and a tendency to curl over and shield the solar plexus and abdominal region indicates lack of confidence and emotional disturbance.

When either studying or teaching, if the body is wholly relaxed, the mind plays through more easily and does its necessary work effectively, with a minimum of effort. Tensions constitute waste and leakage. Strain is halved and energy doubled when work is done with all unused nerves and muscles relaxed. One might well paraphrase a familiar school motto and set as an ideal for both teacher and pupil: "A healthy mind in a relaxed body."

Childhood is "a brief moment of morning . . . . . for the richness of that morning the child is dependent upon you, dependent upon your love, your wisdom, your faith. . . . From generation to generation that love and that faith and that wisdom have grown stronger, are growing stronger, until soon nobody, any time, any place, will call a child 'bad.'"

ANGELO PATRI
in his latest book, *School and Home.*

The Value of Psychology to the Teacher

By Margaret Drummond, M.A.

(Author of "Some Contributions to Child Psychology," "Five Years Old or Thereabouts," etc.)

the last few years Psychology has become so attractive and so fashionable that the old question "Of what use is Psychology to the Teacher?" so often in Training Colleges put to lecturers on the subject, is now hardly ever heard. Yet the question is a legitimate one; every science must ultimately justify its place in the sun by its usefulness. The challenging work of Freud, the spectacular breakdowns and equally spectacular recoveries arising out of war conditions, the passionate need for help for man's troubled spirit, have combined to arouse an interest in Psychology and—in many quarters—an exaggeration of its achievements which may yet have to be paid for in a reactionary movement. Hence at the very moment when the majority have ceased to raise the question stated above, so obvious does the answer seem to them, so strong the position of the science of mind, at this very moment more particularly does it behove those who have believed in Psychology before the "New Psychology" was born to take stock of the position, and in words of truth and soberness set forth what they believe to be its use.

Child-Knowledge

The word "teach" has two objects. Professor Adams was, I think, the first to point out the importance of this. We teach John arithmetic. To do this properly we must know not only arithmetic but also John; and the younger John is, the more important it is that we should know him; for the younger a growing thing the more tender it is and the more easily injured. Dr. Montessori speaks of the little child just entering school as being often "the prey of his impulses and subject to the most obstinate inhibitions." He does what he would not, and what he would that he cannot do. An example from infancy—one of the great source books of Psychology—will make the matter plain. Patricia, a toddler but still without speech, one day saw within reach near the edge of a table a plate of scones. No sooner seen than snatched, no sooner snatched than crumbled, the scone in a twinkling was an amorphous heap upon the floor. This perturbed the adults present. A fuss was made, and a tendency was created in Patricia's little mind. We had much trouble afterwards with snatching. Only by keeping plates of bread, etc., very carefully out of reach for a while did we succeed in curing the obsessive impulse. It was a real compulsion, for Patricia was an amiable baby and did not take pleasure in annoying us. I have known mothers driven almost to despair by similar impulses. It seems to be the emotional nature of the attendant circumstances that produces the fixation. If we could so far control ourselves as to treat the incident on its first happening as of no particular moment, it is probable that no fixation would occur.

After fixation has occurred very little will start the impulse and the emotional storm which often accompanies or follows it. Sometimes the child comes to take a morbid pleasure in this uprising of his emotional nature; he seems positively to crave the outburst. This is a form of infantile dissipation. The man who at times is angry if everything is going well, who seems just seeking for some fault on which to let loose his wrath, shows the same make up. The relief brought to

some patients by the epileptic brain storm is perhaps also to be thought of in this connection.

Not long ago, from half the world away, came to me a letter containing a description of an incident which illustrates so well the help and understanding a knowledge of Psychology can give to those who are seeking the best way to train their children, that I will set it down here.

Gavin is a very bright, very loving little boy of three; but as often happens about this age when the need of asserting the developing personality is just beginning to make itself felt, he would at times distress his mother by fits of grumbling and discontent. Having sought and found some understanding of the true nature of the trouble his mother began to look carefully for the best way in which to present the little directions of every day to the child; for example, a refusal to allow him to do anything was always accompanied by some positive suggestion. After about a fortnight of such careful treatment this dialogue took place:—

Gavin: "Can I take this engine outside?"

Mother "No, but your wooden one is outside."

Gavin: "Can I take this ball outside?"

Mother "Certainly, Gavin."

Gavin: "But *can* I take this ball outside?"

Mother: "Certainly, Gavin; it would be lovely to take it outside."

Gavin: "I wish you would say 'No,' Mother."

By way of experiment his mother said "No," when immediately Gavin began to work towards one of those scenes which are such a source of unhappiness and heart-searching to mothers. "But I *want* to take it outside, mother. I *must* take it out, mother. I *want* to take the ball outside," he exclaimed, making no move to do the act, but simply working himself into a frenzy, in the midst of which his mother rose and left the room.

Next afternoon a very similar conversation was started leading to Gavin's open demand for opposition. "Mother, I wish you would tell me something I mustn't do. *Can* I take this ball outside?" His mother then explained that she liked to allow him to do what he wished whenever she could, that it was only when there was danger of his spoiling something that was of value that she had to prevent him from following his own will. "Oh, is *that* it?" replied her little son.

This record brings out in a striking way the hidden meaning of much childish persistence which is apt to seem wholly unintelligible to the adult. It shows also the child's blank ignorance of the nature of the most common adult motives. In our relations with children we constantly fail because of our stupid habit of taking for granted that what goes without saying to us must be equally obvious to them.

Gavin's fine strong instinct of self-assertion is now sublimated in the direction indicated by the following little incident. One day at breakfast the remark was made about a small tin: "The lid of that will not go on again until the tin is empty." After breakfast Gavin was very quiet for a long time; then he sought out his mother, and announced triumphantly, "The lid's on."

The psychology of the little child is by no means yet an open book. Many questions might be asked with regard to the development of perception, memory, imagination, reasoning, to which at present no certain answer can be supplied. Equally obscure are many problems of emotional and volitional development. But the very fact that these problems are being recognised as scientific problems, are being focussed and brought under the unimpassioned scrutiny of the intellect, must challenge the interest of the teacher and lend a fresh zest to his life.

§

Teacher and pupil are correlative terms, but the work of the teacher is not

limited to the relation implied therein. There are Colleagues, there are Heads, there are Inspectors. It is a well-known fact that members of a Staff often "get on one another's nerves." The difficulties, even the tragedies of the Common Room have been portrayed by more than one novelist. To soothe the irritation produced by these often irritating Other People, psychology offers a balm. We learn, for example, of Defence Mechanisms. We realise that in many cases a frigid manner is a coat of mail unconsciously assumed to protect a too sensitive personality, that blatant self-confidence may be so blatant simply because it has to keep at bay an unbearable degree of self-distrust. With even the bully we can sympathise when we see that he is fighting the traitor within himself.

We learn, morever, that these troublesome Other People may, unknown to themselves, be suffering from unconscious complexes which determine their conduct. If they force a quarrel upon us, it may be because the arch of our eyebrow revives the pain of an ancient and long-forgotten wound. Deep in the heart of every man lives on the child that once he was. The unreasonableness of Other People is in many cases the direct outcome of the mismanagement and the avoidable tribulations which afflicted the years of their childhood. It is true we cannot always trace the connection nor establish the facts; but more than enough evidence has been accumulated to make clear the truth of that wise saying, *Tout comprendre, c'est tout pardonner.*

Self Knowledge

In letters of gold on the wall of the vestibule of the great temple of Apollo in Delphi was inscribed the famous adage, "Know thyself." To Chilon of Sparta, one of the Seven Wise Men who lived some twenty-six hundred years ago, this saying is attributed. It says much for the knowledge of human nature of the early Greeks that they recognised and acclaimed the great wisdom of these simple words.

It is no easy thing to know oneself. But it is a thing to be desired. These two facts, I think, the Greeks acknowledged when they wrote up that inscription so many centuries ago. What does the man gain who has attained to knowledge of himself? I think more than anything else self knowledge introduces a sense of proportion into life. Many of the worst troubles which afflict us are so bad because we are too close to them. They are out of focus, and we do not perceive their true nature. They loom large not because they are really large, but because they are near, because they affect Us. Psychology assists us to take an objective attitude towards them. As all the complex motions of the heavenly bodies were merged in a grand simplicity when Copernicus centred the universe in the sun instead of in the earth, so, inasmuch as a man succeeds in decentralising himself and regarding his own impulses, his own inhibitions, his own emotions and ambitions from an outside standpoint, will he be able to bring light and peace into the dark places of his soul.

For we also have our complexes. We also have our unreasonableness. We also have our defence mechanisms. To ourselves we can apply the same tests that we apply to others. With patience and perseverance we can break down our own resistances and solve our own inner conflict. Nowadays we hear much of freedom; but the only freedom worth having is that which resides in self-knowledge and self-mastery. This freedom no man can give to another. Every man must achieve it for himself.

Tests and Experimental Methods of Education

In what I have said so far I have been thinking chiefly of the light shed upon human nature by the pioneer work of Freud and Jung and those stimulated by the theories of these great men. But when we are considering in a general way the help offered by modern psychology to the teacher, we must by no means forget two other contributing streams of equal

value—I refer to the establishment of scientific tests of psychic qualities, and to the attempts which have been, and are being made, to derive a scientific method of education through the activity of schools conducted on experimental lines. The two great pioneers that we think of in connection with these two movements are, of course, Alfred Binet and Maria Montessori.

Dr. Montessori has formulated no complete system of child psychology, but her books on her method are full of suggestion, not only for those who work with her material and accept her method, but for all who realise that education is neither a drill nor a pouring in of knowledge but an inspiration and directing of life.

Alfred Binet, who died a comparatively young man but not before he had won for himself undying fame in the annals of Psychology, initiated not only those modern methods of measuring intelligence with which his name is associated, but also those scales of educational attainment which are coming more and more to the front in connection with school work. If Education ever becomes a science, it will be thanks in no small degree to the genius of this great Frenchman.

The New Education Fellowship in Scotland

The first year of the organised National Section of the N.E.F. in Scotland has been marked by considerable activity. Lecture tours have been given by Bishop Arundale, D.L., Mrs. Ensor, Mrs. Carol Ring, Miss Gertrude Fox, Miss Margaret McMillan, C.B.E., Mr. John Eades and Miss Marjorie Gullan, besides single lectures by Scottish speakers. The most outstanding success was Miss Gullan's eleven lectures given in September in Dundee, Dunfermline and Kirkcaldy, on "The Speaking of Poetry," which were marked by crowded halls and great enthusiasm. New centres have been formed in Perth and Dunfermline, there being now eleven centres in the country and many scattered members. Thirty-six Scottish members attended the Heidelberg Conference and the inspiration which all received there should help on our activities greatly in the coming year. Our great need is more members and more money!

Professor Marcault's Lectures in Scotland

Feb. 9.—*Glasgow*: **"The Child as Creator."**
Feb. 10.—*Dundee.*
Feb. 11.—*Edinburgh*: **"The Psychology of Punishment and Fear."**
Feb. 12.—*Edinburgh*: **"The Education of Intuition."**
Full details from Miss Cruttwell, Castlegate, St. Andrews, Fife.

Re-Creating the Teacher

By Marjorie Bowen

(Author of "I Will Maintain," "The Carnival of Florence," etc., etc.)

A WISE person once said that "the best labour saver is an intelligent woman," and in this dictum is bed-rock truth that lies at the bottom of so many subjects, problems and difficulties; useless all the elaborate inventions for cleaning, washing, house keeping, etc., if the housekeeper is idle, sluttish, incompetent, useless all the freedom, money, laws and customs invented to safeguard marriage and children if the parents are greedy, selfish or ignorant, and so useless all the modern devices and methods of present day education if the teachers are jaded, dull, indifferent, or out of humour with their work.

For in the end we find that this immensely important matter of education must depend mainly on the people employed in it; unless they are wholly suited for their work and able to give of the very best in themselves, teaching is too apt to become a dry, tedious, mechanical affair, which of course is the last thing it should be.

In all books about teaching which date from the last two hundred years we get this horrifying sense of deadly weariness, of unutterable tedium, of bitter boredom on the part of teacher and scholar alike —the classic specimen is, perhaps "Villette" (though the misery of "teaching" runs through all the works of the Brontë sisters) where the dreadful atmosphere of the school hangs like a miasma over the whole book.

It is easy now to put the finger on the root evil of this wretched system of education which blighted so many lives— the teachers were invariably women of gentle birth and no money, who were thus forced to take up the only "genteel" profession open to their sex; they were absolutely untrained in everything save a limited academic knowledge of a few subjects; they were often not suited either by health or temperament to their work, and they lived in an atmosphere of social slight, emotional repression and nervous tension (imposed by the rigid conventions that governed the behaviour of women) that was, of course, communicated to the pupils and produced an atmosphere of hysterical boredom.

The present state of affairs is very different; modern ideas of education have progressed tremendously; probably there is no profession, save that of medicine, which has so advanced in the last fifty years.

The New Education not only encourages women to take up teaching for the love of it, and to give the best, not the worst of themselves to it, but attaches as much importance to the temperament, health, and happiness of the teacher as to her book knowledge, her intelligence or her powers of command and organization.

In this profession, above all others, when you are dealing direct with human material you need perfect poise, vitality, enthusiasm and control.

And not the hard, nervous control which is merely repressing hostility, temper or weariness, but the control that can bring different aspects of your personality, different aspects of your judgment, easily into play.

It is, of course, but too well demonstrated that it is not what we say or do, but what we *are*, that affects those about us; and children and very young people, with their fresher instincts and their lack of knowledge of all the shibboleths of our complex civilisation, naturally at once detect the mechanical justice, the forced kindness, the dull praise; however perfect the control and training of the teacher, if she is secretly bored or tired or if her interests are really elsewhere the child

will know this and be in proportion discouraged, disheartened, or, in some cases, hostile and stupid.

The great need, then, of education, is for men and women who are, first, suited to this most arduous work, and who are, second, in the best of health and spirits for performing it with satisfaction to themselves and their pupils.

This is, no doubt, a counsel of perfection; no one could deny that teaching is most strenuous and exhausting, that it requires immense concentration, enthusiasm, application and patience on a basis of a naturally sweet humoured, just and generous character to be a complete success; but even when such people are found (and they are by no means rare) they are apt to be used up, dried up and spoilt by monotonous conditions of work, long application to arranging tasks and the lack of other interests beyond that of their exacting occupation.

All industrious people are apt to undervalue recreation, to think that it is a waste of time and to confuse it with idling; the old idea of intellectual labour was that of a lifetime's intense application without let or pause.

We know now, that, though some few may be able to do this, most of us work better and live happier if we have constant mental rest and recreation.

By mental rest, laziness is not meant; a complete mental rest may be obtained by doing something you thoroughly enjoy doing and have always wanted to do, even if, to anyone else, it would be hard, dull work.

To cherish warmly, even desperately, any personal likings or tastes, however capricious or whimsical they may seem, is a sure escape from boredom or weariness; a "hobby" cannot, alas, be cultivated; how useless the advice to "collect" something, to go in for period reading, Grangerizing, hero worship, flower drawing, or any of a thousand and one "hobbies" if the initial impulse is not in yourself!

To try to force any such interest is but to add another boredom to your life, but if you have one you can cultivate it for all you are worth, and it will not fail to be a source of continuous happiness.

People are so often afraid of their secret inclinations as being trivial, stupid, or even ridiculous, but nothing that you thoroughly enjoy is that, and it may in time, however insignificant it appears at first, grow into something of tremendous importance; it is, anyhow, of great importance to you, to be able to do one thing very well or to be an expert in one particular branch of knowledge; it will make a great difference to your self-esteem, to the opinion others have of you, and therefore to the fullness and richness of your life.

It is emptiness and poverty that are to be dreaded, spiritual timidity, mental narrowness; and the beginning of these is too often that mental state which is known as "getting into a groove."

We all seem to be born with innate limitations and prejudices and too often our way of life encourages these; we think that some ideas are intolerable and we won't hear about them, some art forms repel us and we won't look at them, some opinions irritate us and we won't listen to them, we liked some things as they were and we won't hear of them being changed, and so we become mentally arid and hard, poor and dull, and, receiving little, have little to give.

It is not to be said that all definite characters must not have some distinct opinions and prejudices all their lives; but there is a great deal of interest and amusement to be got out of things of which you completely disapprove.

It is an excellent mental tonic to investigate some subject, person, point of view that you thoroughly dislike.

And though you may "come out by the same door that you went in," still the inevitable result will be a widening of the horizon, mental stimulus, and very likely new colour and new interest in life.

It is certain that the most widely tolerable people, those the most receptive to fresh ideas and movements, are the happiest. This is not to say that one

should rush after every fad and whim or continually change one's view point, still "the right to change one's opinion" is a greater privilege than "the right to have an opinion," and to be always learning, observing, and coming to fresh conclusions is one way to preserve mental freshness.

Prejudice is a hateful thing and goes side by side with boredom and dullness, a few hours in the company of a prejudiced person will prove this; what more tedious than this mind set in the vice of convention and custom, incapable of escaping from rigid ready-made opinions!

It is delightful to have a cause, a standard, an ideal, a passionate attachment to some object, symbol or interest, but there is no need for this to make you unjust, hostile or oblivious of other ideals, causes and standards—that way dullness lies.

A delightful form of mental recreation is to train ourselves to *understand* something that lies outside our usual province; we pass by so much that we should admire immensely if we only *understood* it; but we glance casually and go on; it is probable, for instance, that some forms of art cannot be thoroughly enjoyed until they are understood; some schools of painting, for instance, lose half their value if the spectator has not been at pains to understand their medium, their period and the history of their painters.

Or, if you already know all about painting, there is, likely enough, some other subject that you know nothing of at all and pass by indifferently, or some writer you have never bothered about, some science that means nothing, some craft or occupation about which you have the vaguest idea.

Investigate these paths for yourselves —commonplace to others they are new to you—and you will surely find something to interest and stimulate and to send you back to your own pursuits with renewed zest.

Find out beauty for yourself, don't accept other people's formulae; beauty is, of course, everywhere and triumphant and insistent; it is only prejudice, repression and fear that blind our eyes to her; repression and fear we have all had to struggle with, repression of what is merely natural and harmful, fear of vague terrors that never will happen, neither repression nor fear of any importance in themselves but both eating away our joy of life, our sense of beauty, our emotional happiness.

Let us cultivate ourselves, our own tastes, ideas, emotions, intelligence, opinions, first, and then let us cultivate a wide and generous tolerance of everything there is in the world that has the least claim to interest or sincerity; let us preserve the enthusiasm that endeavours to understand before condemning, the mental freshness that will welcome a new point of view, a sense of the beauty that is behind everything and shines through everything, and we shall be able even with restricted material opportunities (it is, of course, only *material* things anyone can restrict for anyone else) to enjoy mental and emotional recreation.

Jones: Teacher and Dreamer

The True Story of An Assistant Master

By John A. Radcliffe

(*Author of "A Single Class on the Dalton Plan"*)

(NOTE.—The facts in this biographical sketch are given to readers of *The New Era* in the hope that Jones's career with its setbacks and successes, its fits of despondency and periods of hope, its checkered progress at the end of which Jones the dreamer found both himself and his purpose, may provide encouragement and stimulation to those reader-assistants, who think that the new outlook in education is only for private teachers, favoured heads and educational writers.)

THIRTY years ago ambitious parents and a far-seeing head decided Jones's career for him. The awkward, uncouth lad of thirteen was not consulted; it would have made little difference if he had been. More than usually erratic for his age, he was even then a dreamer; he had fits of introspection when the noise and bustle of the school-yard *hurt* him. He could not have explained why and there was no one to help him. He did not understand himself except that he had strange dreams of a wonderful purpose in his future, dreams from which he was usually roughly awakened to a rude and unsympathetic world. Then he would retire into himself, spend long hours reading, appear silly and ridiculous before his school-fellows and exhibit a blatant lack of purpose in his nature.

So Jones became a teacher; that is, articles were drawn up and duly signed in the presence of witnesses sentencing the lad to five years' apprenticeship as a pupil-teacher. He did not know what it meant and as time went on dully realised that he had automatically become the butt for the ridiculous humour of his late school-fellows.

Without being conscious of the fact he was delighted that in his new sphere he was expected to read. And he read! No literary mind directed his reading; the old head was quite content if he could analyse a complex sentence correctly and was able to mark standard five's dictation without missing any errors. So undirected and uncontrolled Jones read. He had no special liking and no acquired taste; one could not expect him to have.

He read anything and everything which came his way. Before his five years' apprenticeship was up he had exhausted the then published works of Wells, Phillpots, Bennett, Conrad and Hardy. He ranged from Alexander Dumas to Halliwell Sutcliffe; he poured over the plays of Pinero and Galsworthy; quite unchecked he had even read *Hedda Gabler* and *Ghosts;* Tennyson appealed to him, but so did Omar Khayyam.

At home he was almost ignored. Blest with a brother who was particularly athletic and a prize-winner at most forms of sport, he was regarded as somewhat of a weakling. Smothered by a pair of sisters who were frivolous and gushing, he was regarded as morose. The general family verdict was that Jones was *peculiar* and they were rather glad they had made him a teacher—"It would be so much better for him in after years."

As a scholar he was not brilliant. His extensive reading had given him a certain originality and a facility of expression; but he was erratic even in that, for he seemed to possess no power of logic and, when asked to reason instead of imagine, would appear stupid. At mathematical subjects he was a hopeless failure; every subject ending in y bristled with "Ass's bridges" which he was totally unable to cross.

A second-class pass in his Scholarship Examination took him to college and at college Jones was miserable; but the intercourse with the student-world suc-

ceeded in rubbing off some of his rough corners, in introducing him to the elementary principles of teaching, in making him see that all literature was not fiction, but—most of all—in convincing him that teaching was a high-souled calling and not merely a profession into which parents drafted their *peculiar* children. For this last result of his two years' training he thanked the noble-minded principal, who preached—morning, afternoon and night—the spiritual nobility of the life work awaiting his students.

Then, at the age of twenty-one, Jones was turned out upon the scholastic world a fully-fledged teacher, full of inspiration and hope, overflowing with conviction and ideas, and—most pitifully—incompetent.

His first school proved to be the worst possible jumping-off ground he could have chosen. The Head was a martinet who could have outpointed a barrack-yard drill sergeant. Should Jones get the little mites entrusted to his charge really into the atmosphere of "Alice in Wonderland," the lesson-bell would go and woe betide Jones if he delayed for one single minute the changing of lessons. The Head told him that he himself would take all the practical music and Jones must teach all the theory. And Jones, who wanted to SING, had perforce to obey. Attracted by a little girl's attempts at composition, he sat down by her side, and clothed her attempt with his own vivid imagination. At recess he was called to book by the Head who did not like to see his assistants on terms of familiarity with the children. "It doesn't do, Mr. Jones, you know; it doesn't do. Don't let it occur again!"

Jones didn't and the little girl was robbed of the personality in his help. He tried to introduce the spirit of reality into his lessons—a huge geography map drawn on the playground, wooden swords in the history lesson, a real tea-table in an English lesson—"the children mustn't be out of their places during lessons, the teacher's platform must be barred to the children" — cold, damping influences met his every effort and at the end of a year's service he left the school and sought pastures new. But in the year *he had begun to love children.*

His next position found him in charge of the top class of an old established school in the centre of a small town. To it he brought his enthusiasm combined with his new-found love for children. From his first, unsuccessful venture he had gleaned something of practical method; but was as yet far from understanding the purpose of himself and his work. His enthusiasm was greeted with warmth by his new Head, who would positively beam as his young assistant suggested new ideas, displayed a surprising amount of energy and spared himself not one little bit in the effort to make himself a success.

Months passed away and he began to feel at home; then came the annual visit of H.M.I. and with it his first disillusionment. The dreaded person stalked through his room at nine o'clock without one glance in his direction. At nine-thirty he returned. Without a word to Jones; with no vestige of a courteous introduction from the Head, he proceeded to examine the class. Jones stood on one side looking like a pupil-teacher and feeling like the prisoner in the dock. The inspection over, the Head and H.M.I. left the room, leaving Jones to resume control over a class which had been shown his value.

Blame Jones, if you like; but he was immature, terribly self-conscious and a mere youth both as man and teacher. He began teaching—a geography lesson it was—and before the lesson had been in progress a quarter of an hour the Head quietly came into the room, stealthily crept on tip-toe across the floor, tragically whispered in Jones's ear:

"For goodness sake lower your voice, man; you're shouting; lower your voice—lower it!"

That night Jones went for a solitary walk. It was a walk extending half-way through the night. It was a walk during

Jones communed long and bitterly with himself. He trudged along, his soul in the depths of despair. He felt the idealism with which he had left college slipping away from him. Ridiculous? Perhaps so; but Jones was Jones and the sensitive soul of him could not reason.

The following morning he went to school and found the children still there. He was somewhat surprised; he really expected to find the school a different place from what he had left yesterday. The same innocent, lovable little kiddies were there and Jones carried on. The Head greeted him genially and condescendingly told him that the H.M.I. had said that he was pleased with the work of Jones's class.

Jones had learnt the interpretation which could be placed upon the word "assistant"; his outlook had suffered in the learning of the lesson; but, because he had learnt to love the particular children he had charge of, his further work continued to develop his nature and ability.

The years slipped by and then the war came. Jones—with none of the martinet in his lovable nature—volunteered. He saw pictures of Belgian children; he saw the poor little refugees themselves and—he volunteered. Excited by feelings he could not fathom, he presented himself at a recruiting office and—was rejected. A deformity of the right arm—a legacy of his childhood—was noticed and Jones was turned down. He went back to school and spent every hour of his spare time in war-work.

He volunteered again under the Derby group scheme, was classified B 1 and was eventually called up for active service, when the need for men became more urgent. His deformity caused him to be drafted into a non-fighting regiment and the first work he got was a thirty-six hours' job of moving nine-inch shells. It resulted in him visiting the military hospital and spending a week with his arm in a sling. As he was—from his teaching experience—well versed in drill commands, he was made a lance corporal without pay and given the task of drilling recruits. He kept that position for a fortnight and then was ignominiously sent back to the ranks, as he was not rough enough with the men he was drilling.

"You don't want kindness on a job like this; you want to knock 'em about a bit—give 'em Hell!" said the serjeant-major.

Jones could neither "knock 'em about" nor could he "give 'em Hell." Despair descended upon him, despair black as the night. He had not been a success as a teacher, he knew he hadn't. He was an absolute failure as a soldier. What was the purpose of his life at all? The whole of Europe was groaning under a swelter of blood. Jones's soul cried at the piteous horror of it and moaned that in it all he saw no place for himself. The last months of Jones's army life were a nightmare which left its mark upon him, which made him retire still further into himself, which rendered him quiet, morose and experiencing frequent fits of nervous and miserable introspection.

Eventually he was discharged and returned to school work. He could not write after his name any proud military distinction; he was simply late Private Jones. His army experience he closed down as a page that was written, and not even to himself would he admit the terrible effect it had had upon his mind.

He returned to school-work and took up an appointment in a slum school in one of our largest manufacturing towns. His children were underclothed and underfed, poor little mites whose meagre rags barely hid the frail skeletons which they called their bodies. But they were CHILDREN, and Jones found all his old love returning to him, returning to him a thousandfold because these children had the more need of it, returning to him a thousandfold because his own soul had been softened and saddened by the World War.

He loved them, the whole fifty of them—Jimmy with his unclean language,

Sarah with her pock-marked face. He loved them and pitied them. Then he conceived the idea of the Classroom Beautiful. He spent the whole of his spare cash; he bought tall jardinieres, graceful ferns, pictures, mirrors, curtains, a plush table-cover. He transformed his room into a fairy palace which made its dirty, ragged citizens appear incongruous. Jones cared not; his Head cared not what he did so long as he was not troubled. The ragged little angels grew to love their beautiful classroom home, and also to love this strange teacher who had brought the beauty into their lives. It became a competition to discover new ways of showing him their affection. He saw and understood and loved them in return.

He threw himself heart and soul into the task of uplifting their poor little lives. He took them to the Art Gallery; he tried to make them realise the sublime beauty of *The Shadow of the Cross*, the pathos of *The Last of England*, the hope and trust of *The Return of Persephone*, Accompanied by his ragged band he went to the picture house to see such pictures as *Pollyanna*, and to the theatre to see the *Blue Bird*.

The children rewarded his love and care with the redoubled interest they displayed in their school-work. In that interest and in the continuous daily life he spent with them he found revealed to himself one of the most beautiful things in the world—the soul of the slum-child.

They began to ask what they were going to do to-morrow. He began to put upon the wall a list of the lessons to be taken the following week. The children greedily read of their work in advance, and when each lesson became due Jones found the children prepared with many little surprises of which he had never thought. Thus all unconsciously he found out the benefits of giving the children forecasts of their work.

Then these surprises worried him at the end. A lesson would arrive and he would find that Mary or John had taken time by the forelock, and that as far as they were concerned the lesson was done. Slowly it dawned upon him that it was possible to let Mary and John proceed to the next lesson. He did, and so had taken a further step on his path to freedom.

An inspector's visit found him self-conscious and nervous. The Head brought the inspector into the room, introduced him, and left them to it. The inspector was a kindly and far-seeing man; he saw in Jones great possibilities. His praise at the end of his visit was meagre; but his destructive criticism was so just that Jones had to admit its correctness. He recommended Jones a number of books to read; he told him of certain schools it would be advantageous for him to visit. Jones read the books; he visited the schools, and slowly he began to understand that the souls of the children he loved and the minds he was teaching were not two distinct things. Just as each soul had its little peculiarities, so were those peculiarities reflected in the child's mind.

So he came to individual methods. He saw now in Mary and John, Sarah and Bert, not merely little children whom he loved, but individual entities whom he must study. He studied them, and in each one he discovered possibilities which his old methods had never touched upon.

Illness stepped in just when he was about to enter the kingdom of child freedom. In and out of school for months on end he had devoted himself to his slum children. He had spared neither his pocket nor himself. Never robust, his energetic life in the sordid surroundings in which his child angels lived had sapped his vitality, and for weeks Jones lay prostrate with a nervous breakdown and physical collapse.

Once more the blackness of despair descended upon him. He was of no use in the scheme of things; there was no discoverable purpose behind his existence. His mind housed a soul which had the most divine hopes, and his body wasn't even strong enough to allow him to carry his child-love to fruition. He cursed his

body; he cursed his own existence. But, because he must live, on recovery he went back to teaching.

This time he was fortunate in securing a position in the school of a residential suburb. His walks to and from school were through fields, where daily he was brought into contact with the perfect harmony and quiet purpose of nature. In school he found himself surrounded by children who were the exact opposite of those he had left.

His new Head had a talk with him on his first day; he had evidently heard of Jones's work in the slum school and sympathetically tried to show him that his own keenness was the means which had robbed the slum children of their friend. Enthusiasm was a good thing, but so was relaxation; school was a beautiful place, but a change now and again was both desirous and necessary.

Jones began his new duties with almost ideal conditions, a separate classroom, intellectual children, and a sympathetic Head. He began by introducing his old slum school methods,—love for children, combined with detailed study of individuals. Rocks he had never suspected threatened to founder his enterprise from the start. Jealousies sprang up among his pupils at the familiarity which his individual study of them entailed. Debarred from taking any strenuous exercise because of his impaired physique, he found himself more in sympathy with the girls than with the boys, and that he knew would never do.

Then he heard of the Dalton Plan; he read of the New Education. He compared it with his own methods, and found that he had already journeyed nine-tenths of the way from the old to the new. He drafted out a scheme for his own class, retaining features of his own methods which he had proved by experience. He approached his Head and received permission to experiment.

For weeks the scheme was in danger of being a failure. The children were not used to freedom, the other classes were working along the old lines, his work must stand comparison with that of his fellow teachers both for accuracy and neatness. Success was slow in coming, but Jones felt sure of himself and stuck to his belief. One by one his ideas permeated into the other rooms; little by little the freedom he had introduced spread throughout the school.

Then Jones began to be heard of. He was asked to write articles descriptive of his methods; he was invited to lecture before gatherings of teachers. His happiness, however, was in his classroom where—surrounded by the intelligent and self-confident faces of his children—he had after years of scholastic worries found himself.

In Jones's room you will find two things which permeate the bright and happy atmosphere—the soul of Jones, teacher, dreamer and child-lover, and the souls of a number of individual children co-mingling with that of their guide and friend.

Jones is only an assistant master; but he no longer doubts his purpose in life; he has found it and in the New Education the means by which that purpose can be accomplished.

Book Reviews

Health and Psychology of the Child. (Heinemann. 7s. 6d.)

Dr. Elizabeth Sloan Chesser has made a most interesting collection of papers by such recognised experts as Sir Maurice Craig, Dr. Leonard Williams, Lady Barrett, Viscountess Erleigh, etc., whose collective knowledge of their subjects has resulted in a book which should be of extreme value, not only to those whose work lies in this direction, but also to parents to whom at least some of the information contained in the sixteen chapters in the volume will come as positive revelation.

Lady Barrett's observant and perceptive chapter on the "Education of the Nursery Child and its Influence on Character" is written with the greatest care and insight, the understanding of a psychological side, so often completely neglected, being made especially clear.

All the papers—excepting perhaps Dr. Leonard Williams' chapter on "The Endocrine Glands and Vitamines," which is more in the nature of a scientific treatise than the others—could well be delivered as short lectures at "Mothercraft" meetings and the like, to the great benefit of their hearers.

Sir Bruce Bruce-Porter, K.B.E., C.M.G., M.D., has contributed a most useful and easily understood essay on "The Physical Aspects of Adolescence," which deals with such important subjects as the treatment of diseases, appertaining particularly to the years of development, the importance of sleep, suitable food, etc., all in such simple language as to be of practical use to those immediately interested in the upbringing of young people.

Throughout the book there is a tendency to stress the psychological side, as its title implies, which goes to prove the immense advance made of late years in the study and understanding of the mind. Miss Agnes Savill, M.D., gives an extraordinarily interesting example of this in her remarks on "Music and Education." Indeed the whole book is so full of easily assimilable information, whether discursive or otherwise, on careful and helpful methods of "understanding" children during their most complicated periods of growth, that it is the positive duty of every parent to study it.

M. Hope Burnham.

The Child: His Nature and His Needs. A survey of present day knowledge concerning Child Nature edited by M. V. O'Shea, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin. Published by The Children's Foundation, Valparaiso, Indiana, 500 p.p., price $1.

By this time we are familiar with the excellent pioneer and research work of this "Foundation," which bases its appeal on Professor Dewey's well-known dictum:—"What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all its children."

In an excellent preface, the Editor draws attention to the gulf between knowledge and practice in the education of children, and in the main, the book concerns itself with the bridging of this gulf.

There are three parts, the first dealing with the present state of our knowledge of *Child Nature*, the second with our knowledge of *Child Well-Being*, and the third with our knowledge of *Education*.

The writers of the various chapters number some sixteen experts, including such well-known names as Kirkpatrick, Dearborn, Baldwin, Emerson, Winslow, Scott-Hall and O'Shea.

The "expression" side of the child's nature and his social and moral equipment are rightly emphasised, while questions of nutrition, mental hygiene, adolescence occupy a prominent place.

It is rather refreshing to find that the claims of "intellectually superior" children are not overlooked, as these are rarely given tasks and training which would permit them to work at full capacity. The tendency of the age has rather been to "standardise," and thus individual ability has not been given sufficient opportunity to develop on its own lines, the world being the loser.

The book is admirably illustrated both by diagram and picture, and one must not omit to mention the very complete bibliography and other data which are useful adjuncts to this excellent book on Child Care.

Intelligent Tests are freely quoted and various plans—Dalton, Batavia, Winnetka, Mannheim, Platoon, and Two and Three Track—clearly expounded, showing that the problems of school promotion not only involve, but furnish, many of the fundamental principles of child training.

In conclusion we must not omit to state that a subscription of one dollar to the "Children's Foundation," Valparaiso, Indiana, will bring the book to your table.

J. E. T. S.

The Foundations of Education. By [illegible], M.A., Ph.D. (University of London Press. Price, 8s. 6d.)

It would be impertinent, in the short space at our disposal, to attempt a "review" of Dr. Findlay's new book. All that may be attempted is an indication of its value to all who are interested in any aspect of sociology. The book "is the outcome of a life's experience." It is a balanced, thoughtful, critical and prophetic study, the design of which is "to present an ordered sequence of thought. . . . a system of education." This first volume deals, in two separate sections, with the aims of Education, and its organisation. The supreme aim in Education is the nurture of the human spirit. The teacher's function is distinctive from that of other social workers—clergy, artists, statesmen—who are concerned with progress: the teacher is concerned with confirming the advance, so that in time to come his scholars may advance a further step in social

evolution. In the second section, which seeks "to elucidate principles of organisation in a comprehensive scheme," the institutions that foster education; schools, and the oversight of school with its advisory and reporting functions; professional and lay teachers; the economics of education; education authorities; all are exhaustively studied. Juvenile unemployment and the trend of research in education are dealt with in Notes. Teachers and parents, anyone who has anything to do with education, the public in general, should read carefully and digest thoroughly every chapter in this book. Its value in constructive criticism of sociology in general would be difficult to over-estimate; so would its value in stating clearly, and in throwing out as a challenge the foundations and organisation of education.

The Child, the Clinic, and the Court. (New Republic Inc., New York.)

This book is a collection of papers—of varying interest—read in Chicago in January, 1925, at the twenty-fifth and fifteenth anniversaries respectively of the first Juvenile Court and the first Psychopathic Institute. In England we are just beginning to realise that the treatment of misbehaviour should be in the hands of a skilled physician and a teacher rather than in those of a jailer. Consequently several of these papers are interesting since they show the experience the United States has gained in a study much further advanced there than here. One of the most interesting papers is that by Dr. William Healy on "The Psychology of the Situation," a clear-sighted study of the effect of the psychological and physical environment. Dr. Healy's criticism is that the separate processes—detention, clinical study, probation, etc.—in the treatment of delinquency have been regarded as functioning alone, not as forming parts of an integrated whole. Another interesting paper is "Trial by Newspaper," read by Nils Anderson, author of "The Hobo," in which he shows how the newspapers, greedily seizing on anything that will make "copy," frequently indelibly stigmatise a whole family, and give a young offender a forceful push towards a life of crime. The book is disappointing in that a number of the papers might have given much more information and help than they actually do; there is a lack of relation between title and matter which suggests that the matter was written to fit the title and not the title to indicate the matter. An American-English dictionary would be useful.

M. M. M.

Educational Heresies. By BERNARD WRIGHT. (Noel Douglas. 5s.)

This book, with its arresting title, should be in the hands of all who desire a condensed and well-reasoned critique of modern educational opinion and experiments.

Perhaps no social ideal receives more lip service than education, yet none commands less support of a practical character. When educational and social theories coincide, then we shall obtain a practical solution of educational problems, such as is demonstrated by writers like Margaret McMillan, Prof. Dewey and Prof. Findlay.

A dozen interesting and informative chapters on social environment, present condition of schools, Sanderson, Gary, Dalcroze, religious instruction, individual necessity, and, most important of all, the problem of the "Teacher," indicate to some extent the scope of this unusual book.

In amplification of the last point, stress is laid on the accidental conuection of the B.Sc. and M.A. degrees as the accepted "sine qua non" for teaching ability and the tendency to offer these as a final solution to the problem of the training of teachers, when surely a "faculty of education" with corresponding degrees would be a better solution. A technique of education, with compulsory basic subjects and broad options, would furnish courses wide enough for all educational needs, and would eliminate the present invidious distinctions and divisions.

From the foregoing it will readily be seen that one finds in this small volume a wealth of suggestion, a sound, if daring, criticism, and a constructive policy with regard to the future development of education.

J. E. T. S.

Everyday Psychology in the Nursery. (National Society of Day Nurseries. 1s.)

This is a useful collection of selections from courses of Lectures given under the auspices of the "National Society of Day Nurseries," and should certainly be read by all parents, nurses, and teachers. They are written in simple language and contain authoritative information on certain difficult subjects connected with the development and welfare of young people.

All profits from this little book will be divided between the "National Society of Day Nurseries" and the "National League for Health, Maternity, and Child Welfare," who are the publishers.

Those who read this volume will not only profit themselves, but also assist these two excellent institutions.

M. H. BURNHAM.

Abstracts of Lectures, Discussions, etc., given at Meetings of the University of London Vegetarian Society. (Sec., 18, Dersingham Road, Cricklewood, N.W. 2.)

Vegetarianism has been treated so much more seriously of late years that the Pamphlet issued by the University of London Vegetarian Society, containing extracts from Lectures, Discussions, etc., is certain to be of interest to many.

The remarks made by W. A. Sibley, Esq., Headmaster of Wycliffe College, Stonehouse, Glos., concerning the respective advantages of Vegetarianism versus Meat-Eating in the matter of games, and the comparative figures he quotes, are little short of startling.

"If your stomach wants a rest,
Bread and cheese and jam are best"

is a slogan composed by some of the boys of Wycliffe, who follow the Vegetarian diet.

The other treatises are all equally instructive and enlightening, but "The Evolution of Man's Diet" (Harry Campbell, M.D., F.R.C.P.) and "The Tragedy of Food" (Miss Dorothy Mathews) are especially worthy of mention.

M. H. BURNHAM.

Fairies at Work and Play. By GEOFFREY HODSON. (Theosophical Publishing House. 3s. 6d.)

In *Fairies at Work and Play* Mr. Geoffrey Hodson opens up a wonderful new world for us, and

makes us long to do exploring for ourselves, a world in which he pictures real fairies, brownies, elves, gnomes, water-spirits, and other creatures, which the ordinary man has not the eyes to see.

That everyone can see them, if they will but take the trouble to develop the sight by careful training, Bishop Leadbeater makes quite clear in his Preface.

Mr. Hodson possesses these faculties by nature, and he writes with such conviction of the truth of what he sees, that he must perforce carry his readers along with him.

It is a book that all who have the care and training of children should read. Many children possess the gift of being able to see fairies and elves in their early years, but so often the sceptical attitude of the grown-ups around, who, with indulgent smiles (and not always those), tell the child that he is imagining that he has seen these things, has the effect of crushing these sensitive faculties in the child, and the material outlook of the ordinary world closes round him, and shuts the door to that Wonder-World into which he was just entering.

The Introduction is a most valuable chapter, in that it gives a scientific and reasonable explanation of the nature of Fairies, and the part they play in the work of the world, and why and how human beings are able to see them and to understand them, and understanding, to collaborate with them.

What a wonderful world it would be if we could all do this, and how much happier and easier life would be! Is it not probable that because we have not worked with Nature-spirits in the past, but rather against them, that so often crops have failed, and famines, fires, and storms have been our lot?

If only teachers could make this teaching of Mr. Hodson's their own and pass it on to their children, then surely the next generation would have a better and a happier time than we have had?

Particularly fascinating is the description of how the Nature-spirits help bulbs to grow in bowls. Who would have dreamt that so much steady and unselfish work had to be done by little living beings, before we can have the lovely blooms, which gladden our eyes in the spring-time, and make our houses beautiful?

Delightful too is the chapter on Brownies and Elves with the careful and detailed description of the actual shape and size of "the little people," and of the part they play in our every-day life, whilst that on Gnomes gives us clear pictures of another type of creature not so friendly to the human race. I myself once came into touch with these when staying in a house built over a coal mine in Derbyshire, and I can testify from first-hand experience of a Gnome's desire to annoy any human being who happens to get in his way.

Beautiful are the descriptions of the Water-Fairies and Undines, of the Fairies of the Air, and of Devas, and the last chapter, dealing with Nature-spirits and their work in Ceremonial, is a revelation to anyone who is interested in ceremonial work, and has perchance wondered how it was that such definite results were produced by the performance of ceremonies, or who has visited some spot where ceremonies were performed in ancient times, and has been able to sense the atmosphere still pervading the place—as for instance in some of the Druid centres of worship.

Time and space will not permit of my dwelling in further detail on this entrancing little book, save to emphasise the note of love for Truth and honesty which is struck all through. Again and again the author says that he cannot describe any further because he cannot see. I would earnestly recommend all readers of the *New Era* to get the book and read for themselves. They will find it fascinating reading even if they cannot bring their minds to accept it as depicting realities which are becoming recognised by many of our present-day humanity.

In relation to this some will perhaps remember the article by Sir A. Conan Doyle in the Strand Magazine some six years ago, where pictures were reproduced from real photographs taken by two girls, living in Yorkshire, who had some fairies as friends and companions, and were able to photograph them, in order to prove to a somewhat sceptical father that such beings really existed.

M. B. H.

An Exchange Holiday Offer

A German teacher invites an English teacher (of either sex) to spend about a fortnight at his home in Schwerin in return for a similar invitation to him to visit England. Our German friend can speak English. Schwerin is about two hours from Hamburg, with beautiful surroundings—lakes and wood, good theatre, etc.

A German teacher who wishes to improve her English seeks a position in a school for a few months next summer in which she can give German lessons in exchange for board and lodging and opportunity to speak English. Please apply to *New Era*.

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The Outlook Tower

Bureau International D'Education

We are glad to be able to announce that the scope of the New Education Fellowship has been considerably increased through the formation of the International Bureau of Education in Geneva, which will be a centre for educational information and activity working in close relationship with the League of Nations. The J. J. Rousseau Institute (Geneva), which since 1912 has been doing much valuable work, is to be the headquarters of the Bureau. The programme of the Bureau includes the following:—

1. **Information.** To obtain and supply information from all countries concerning private and State education of all grades.
2. **Scientific Research.** To research into the psychology of childhood, of pedagogy and industry. The Bureau will also concern itself with the New Education and its methods, such as co-education, self-government, etc.
3. **Co-ordination.** To co-ordinate the work of all kindred associations throughout the world.
4. **Internationalism.** The Bureau hopes to be able to help forward goodwill between the peoples of the world, especially between the world's youth.

Prof. P. Bovet, the Director of the J. J. Rousseau Institute, has been appointed Director of the Bureau. Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, our German colleague, and Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, our Swiss colleague, have been appointed joint co-Directors of the Bureau.

The Open Road*

It has also been suggested to make Dr. Rotten European agent of a scheme to arrange tours in Europe for American teachers. An organisation called The Open Road is planning for small parties—not over twelve or fifteen in each group—to travel through Europe with student and teacher guides, being received as they go by teachers, University authorities, statesmen, leading minds, and distinguished hostesses. Instead of merely sightseeing it is the aim of these tours to bring the members into close acquaintance with the European peoples, their customs and ideas. The Americans want more doors open to their countrymen travelling abroad. On the part of the Europeans the motive of co-operation is also patriotic; they see an opportunity to promote American understanding of their national problems.

* The Open Road Inc., 4702, Woolworth Building, New York City.

Internationalism

Dr. Rotten was recently invited by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace (European Section) to visit Paris and lecture to teachers' associations on the reconciliation between German and French teachers. It is not, we think, sufficiently realised that a tremendous struggle is going on in most European countries between extreme nationalism and extreme internationalism. The extreme nationalists consider that internationalism means lack of patriotism and even a belittling of one's native land. This, of course, is untrue of the real internationalist who realises that each country has its own note to strike in the world harmony, and that differences in national cultures and distinctions of opinion are for the *enrichment* of the world. Internationalism does not mean a decrying of one's own country and an exalting of all other countries, nor is it an effort to make all peoples adopt the same customs and beliefs until the world is reduced to dreary uniformity. The secret of the international spirit is differentiation, with harmony between the differing parts of the one whole. Only with this spirit can Peace come with certainty. In

this preparation for Peace the New Education has a large part to play. As Marc Sangnier has said: "Il faut procéder à la preparation psychologique de la Paix."

The New Education and Peace

The New Education does not "teach" Peace, rather it *creates* Peace by making children human, by teaching teachers all over the world how to educate *men*, not only co-citizens or co-believers in religious or political faith. Through the New Education the natural friendliness of the child is maintained throughout the whole of life: supported by knowledge and understanding it reaches beyond the barriers between nations to the ultimate realisation of World Friendship.

The New Education being the education of the *whole* man—of the emotions and will as well as of the mind—is a truly *human* education. This is the reason why it is inevitably international and stands against all that divides and restricts. It admits the differences that exist in all nations and races, but educating them *to the full* it brings them into unity with all others by developing the *social sense*, the realisation of universal brotherhood, resulting in social service.

The old system of education over-emphasises the training of the mind and leaves the emotions comparatively uncared for. War fever is one of the results of this unequal development, the emotions of a nation tending to run riot in response to stimuli belonging to a stage of evolution that is past. The New Education, based on co-operation and development of character, educates the Will to Peace rather than the Will to Power. It dissolves the barriers that keep peoples apart, realising that from the seed of separation spring wars; realising also that the *Wisdom* of Peace is a synthesis of the *understanding* of many nations.

Practical experiments in many countries are discovering the principles and methods of the New Education, and our Fellowship is pressing for their world-wide application. There is no greater unifying factor than one ideal of education, and that no special one, but a synthetic ideal of which all methods, all principles, of the New Education are necessary parts.

Les Ligues De Bonté*

Pour l' Education Morale de la Jeunesse

While in Paris recently we met Mme. Eugène Simon, President and Founder of the Ligues de Bonté. This movement has grown very rapidly in Latin countries where it has received the support of the directors of State education. The League was founded in 1912 at the International Congress on Moral Education held at the Hague, and has for its object the introduction into schools of the principles and methods of moral training. It seeks to develop in the child the qualities of heart (qualités du cœur) and to cultivate right ideas of duty towards others. Each child on joining the League promises that each morning on waking he will ask himself what opportunities for good he will have during the day. Every evening he writes a short report of any good deeds he has accomplished. These reviews are unsigned and placed in a box in the classroom. Later they are read to the class and gradually the child is led to treasure *character* as the most precious gift of the individual. The chief acts of grace required of the child are:—

1. To perform one good deed each day;
2. To refrain from untruth;
3. To protect the weak and help the unfortunate;
4. To respect the old and infirm;
5. To be polite to all;
6. To be kind to animals.

The secret of the great success of the League seems to depend upon the principle of *action* which it embodies. The children are not asked to listen to long talks on unkindness, selfishness and rudeness; they are asked "to do" something. Children are first of all active beings and learn best through action; a

* Headquarters:—3, Av. du Bois de Boulogne, Paris. Literature supplied free on application to Paris.

definite task appeals to them. In Latin countries, in which religious teaching is not given in the official schools, these Leagues have been a boon. Teachers speak highly of the effect which this active morality has had upon their pupils.

Some of the "reviews" written by the children are very interesting, as will be seen from the following selected at random from a large number shown to us:—

1. "I have helped an old man who was carrying a sack of coals too heavy for him."
2. "My little sister lost her sweets so I gave her mine."
3. "Two children were fighting. I separated them, saying that it was not now war time."
4. "A little boy was going to throw a stone at a duck. I made a noise so that the duck swam away and was saved from the stone."
5. "During recreation two big boys were going to beat a small boy. I ran between them and the little boy escaped."
6. "Mother told me to go to the cupboard to fetch an egg for my supper. I saw there some sweets belonging to grandma. I had almost raised my hand to take one when I thought of the Ligue and refrained."
7. "To-day I stopped some children who were tying a saucepan to the tail of a little dog."

Exhibition

We have collected a small exhibition of work, from some of the New Schools of Europe, which will travel to the States with me when I am lecturing there from 24th March to 8th May—under the direction of Miss Gertrude Hartman, 10, Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. The exhibits of drawings and paintings are of special interest to the teacher and psychologist. They not only reveal that children possess a great deal of talent which is readily expressed when they are allowed freedom for their own creativeness, but also that children's art reveals the Collective Unconscious of their countries. The work of the children of the Central European countries reflects a troubled world; it expresses travail and new birth; it is dynamic, Dionysian, filled with urge and upheaval and the breakdown of tradition. There is a change in the attitude towards life and a groping towards a New Day. The work from countries that have not been so shattered by war and revolution, such as England, shows a greater appreciation of form; it is static, tranquil, and the colours are more delicate. The work reveals the spirit of the nation as ordered, stable, progressing within the law. In these countries change is coming through evolution rather than through revolution, and it is therefore likely to be far slower.

The New Schools

While it is undoubtedly true that the New Schools produce a new attitude to life, an attitude which we believe will have far-reaching effects in the solving of the great world-problems which confront us to-day; while there can be no doubt that the difference between the orthodox school and what has come to be called the "new" school, is very great (an article in this number shows us some of these differences) nevertheless, we cannot help thinking that *plus c'a change plus c'est la même chose* so long as our schools try to conform to the present-day standard of what an educated person should *know*. If we can stand aside for a moment from our civilisation, our traditions, from the economic needs and social differences that have built up our conception of education, we find that the educational system of the present is a relic of the past. The amount of knowledge available in the recent past, particularly for childhood and youth, was small compared with the vast dissemination of knowledge that has been possible during the last hundred years. Custom demands that the school shall impart a certain amount of information about a certain number of subjects within a given number of years. To-day the schools cannot keep up with the swift expansion that has taken place in many of the school subjects; it is only possible to treat

superficially any subject during actual school life. The examination system arose in order to test whether a child had acquired a given knowledge in a given time, and schools were judged by their ability to present their pupils for examination within the least possible number of years. These examinations are still set by Universities overweighted by the tradition of the past. Thus the New School of to-day is pressed on the one side by these examinations and on the other by parents anxious for the material welfare of their children, recognising that the only entrance to the professions lies *at present* through examinations.

These factors make compromise inevitable in the New Schools of to-day. They still have to attain the same examination results as the orthodox schools; they must still impart a certain amount of information conforming to a fixed standard within a given period, therefore they still need some form of timetable and syllabus; they must still impose homework and correct homework. Economic conditions force them to engage the minimum number of staff, and convenience generally dictates that in a secondary school the staff shall be specialists. Always they are confronted by the problem of how far they dare release the spirits of the children entrusted to their care, lest when the children enter the maelstrom of modern civilisation, the adaptation which they must needs make be psychologically harmful to them. Therefore the New Schools have to content themselves with very slow progress and constant compromise.

Again, teachers in the "New" Schools, as well as in the old, have no time for research work, no time even to stand aside and see what they are doing. Their life during term time is one continual giving of lessons, preparing of lessons, correcting of lessons. They become buried in the detail of their own subject and lose contact with the wider aspects of it. In the ideal school of the future the teachers will probably not depend entirely upon teaching for their livelihoods, they will teach during part of the day only, other time being given to other interests or professions. Only so can the teacher bring to the pupil the freshness of life that contact with varied sources of inspiration can give.

But are we ourselves entirely free from the taint of the old ideas of an "educated" man? When we meet a child who has not heard of Oliver Cromwell or who has not read Shelley (probably because his chief interest has been centred on scientific and wireless experiments), we are shocked; automatically we are horrified at this "ignorance." It is perhaps because we are ourselves built upon this old standard of education that we must wait for others to bring to fruitage the seeds which we are sowing now.

The Future

Looking into the future with the eyes of vision can we see that the time will come when the whole basis of education will be reconsidered? Can we foresee a few of the fundamental changes? If the New Psychology be accepted as the basis of education it will necessitate a reorientation of our ideas as to the function of the school. Education will then be based upon a study of the *evolutionary* phases of the child's consciousness and will be viewed as an organic process which changes and develops as the child grows. The function of the school will not be to impart a standardised amount of information but rather to provide the best conditions for growth and for the development of character. The phychological stages through which the child passes will then indicate to the teacher the type of education to be provided at a particular age.

Thus up to **6 or 7 years of age** the child's consciousness appears to function chiefly through **Sensation** which is his dominant method of contacting the world about him. During this stage the education of the child should be largely concerned with the building up of a healthy physical body and with the training of accurate sense perceptions. This is the stage for

the Montessori Method and its various modifications.

From **7 to 12 years** consciousness functions chiefly through **Action.** During this period the Advanced Montessori Method, the various Project Methods and the Decroly Method would aid the child to acquire accurate information concerning his immediate environment. This is the time when the three R's should be mastered, through activity in some form or other, and not merely through sitting at a desk and participating in class teaching.

From **12 to 16 years** consciousness is functioning predominantly through the **Emotions,** and consequently feeling must play the important rôle in education. During this period the subjects chosen for study should be those in which the child is most interested, for thus can emotional power be harmoniously harnessed to the service of the, as yet, undeveloped mind. Those subjects will loom large which are taught by a teacher whom the child loves, his emotional response to the teacher vivifying his mind and stimulating interest and effort in the subjects concerned. The emotions are important factors in the development of faculty. During this time the child is especially responsive to all forms of Art and to reverence and appreciation of the great heroes of culture, who light the flame of aspiration in the heart of Youth.

Since the proper methods of educating children during the first two stages have been generally recognised, it is in the third stage that the greatest change is needed. At present it is from 12 to 16 that in most secondary schools an attempt is made to teach children from the intellectual standpoint and prepare them for examinations. In order to cover the ground required, the very subjects that the child needs whilst passing through this stage have to be omitted from the timetable.

In the light of the New Psychology it would appear that it does not much matter what special knowledge is acquired during this period providing that the creative instincts can be expressed, and that an adaptation of the psyche is made in conformity with psychological laws.

In the future we may become sufficiently wise to recognise that a child's education should in some form be continued until 21 years of age.

From **16 to 21 years, Reason** is the chief manifestation of consciousness. This should be the period during which definite factual knowledge is acquired and examinations taken. Until this stage the school should not be asked whether a child possesses a definite amount of knowledge of this or that or the other subjects, but rather whether he is self-disciplined, whether he is creative and dynamic, whether he is free from inhibitions and subjective difficulties, whether he is tolerant and broad-minded, whether he has learned how to study independently so that he may be ready to continue his education at the University stage, and, above all, whether he has learned to serve the community.

Necessarily no hard and fast rules can be laid down concerning these psychological stages. Since each child belongs to a special psychological type, and consequently functions through the qualities of that type more readily than through those of other types, the educational methods applied must be individual and carefully adapted to each child. For instance, children belonging to the Mental type will have a great thirst for knowledge, throughout all their psychological stages, which will not be found, say, in the Emotional type.

What are we doing to bring about these changes? The New Education Fellowship is working to spread these ideas among the Public and to band together teachers and others for their mutual encouragement, inspiration and support by keeping them informed of each other's work and the new ideas and methods as they appear in different parts of the world. But before education can come to its rightful place the economic basis of our civilisation must be changed and the present-day scramble give place to a co-operative system which will foster faculty and individuality rather than force all types

of human beings to the necessity of accumulating the *same* knowledge in order that they may at a certain age express themselves on paper, disgorging their gathered facts for the perusal of examiners, who have possibly been told that there are too many "black-coated workers" and that the examinations must be made stiffer!

The New Education Fellowship

It is clear that much work has yet to be done by the Fellowship and similar organisations before the New Schools can multiply extensively. We must concentrate for the moment on the spreading of the New Education ideas among the peoples of the world. The New Schools cannot flourish, except with great difficulty, amid people who do not understand their aims.

A Fairy Godmother Wanted

We could sometimes wish that a fairy godmother would make it possible for the Fellowship to extend its influence and its power to help. For instance, we would like each of our Bureaux in England, Germany and Switzerland to have, in addition to an office, a reading or club room to which members could go for study or for social contacts with their colleagues. In London we have a good Library, but it is housed in the general office, and anyone attempting to study there is soon driven away by the rumpus of office routine—typewriters, telephones, streams of callers. It is true that we organise lectures and study groups but we would like more social facilities—and there are other things which we promise ourselves we shall be able to do some day (when the fairy godmother reveals herself). We would like:—

1. To assist teachers who wish to visit other countries and observe the new work in Education;
2. To help teachers to train in the new methods of Education, most of which are not yet included in their regular training;
3. To negotiate exchanges between teachers and pupils of different countries;
4. To print monographs on important aspects of the New Education, for free distribution;
5. To support full-time lecturers who would go through the world spreading the news of the New Education.
6. To support one or two men or women qualified to undertake definite research in connection with the New Education.

We would like also to establish a Fellowship Bureau in Paris, where a centre already exists.

The Fellowship, already having achieved definite results, has justified itself as a potent influence in the moulding of the future. Help of any kind, whether of service or money, will enable its message to penetrate further among the nations of the world, to the end that youth everywhere may move towards that "Peace that passeth understanding," because in their schools (and homes) they have gained wisdom founded on love, and creative expression founded on service.

The Difference between the Old and New Type of School

It is seldom that a teacher from a pioneer school has the opportunity of going back for a time into a school of the old type, with all her convictions unimpaired as far as the essentials of education are concerned.

Such is my own case. After four years' experience of high schools and private schools and a year's training, I became attracted to the idea of co-education and profoundly dissatisfied with the education of the better-class girl, as I had experienced it in normal schools. I therefore joined a new co-education school, experimental in every way, with self-government, a Montessori department and a flourishing guild and community life. After five years there—the happiest in my teaching experience—circumstances over which I had no control caused me to leave and seek a post of the ordinary kind, while I prepared myself for other work. My present post is that of senior English mistress in a large girls' High School in London.

[The reason for my anonymity will become plain as my readers follow me through this article!]

I have been asked by the editor of the *New Era* to note down my impressions of the differences between pioneer schools, such as the one I have just left, and my present school, which is of the same type as the schools in which I first taught. After only a term and a half here, impressions must necessarily be fragmentary and possibly might be corrected later, but for what they are worth I present them to my readers.

As pioneer education means to me co-education, I shall inevitably base my remarks on the difference between the segregated school and the co-school. And in so doing I shall proclaim what I believe to be the fundamental mistake of the schools of the old type. I remind my readers that the nursery of all public and private education in England through the Dark Ages was the Church. She shielded learning against barbarity, and by wielding the powers alike of true religion and superstitious dread, insured for the seeker after truth, who would claim her protection, a refuge from the distractions and temptations of the active world. Many a so-called weakling, who could never have borne arms nor won a wife, found in the bosom of Mother Church both shelter and honour; many an intellect was cherished into fruition, which would have blossomed tardily in the grotesque, genial, passionate world outside.

And so through the centuries there grew up the idea that Truth was something to be studied reverently in private, and best found where the lures of the flesh and the pride of the spirit were absent. Hence the monastic endowment and regulation of public schools. Later when this endowment passed into the hands of Guilds and Companies, that form of regulation was adopted without question, and when the higher education of women became an established fact, it could do no better than emulate the regimen and ideals of its rivals and masters and develop along the lines of segregation.

What does this mean? That for some 900 years education of the young growing creature has been inevitably associated with the repression of intercourse with the other sex. The heinous crime in a boys' school of the early twentieth century was still to meet girls clandestinely as in the schools of their sisters it was to look across or whisper to a boy in church! In other words, what, in a family of boys and girls, is considered right and natural

and healthy, namely the sharing of work and pleasures, sport and adventure, becomes, as soon as boy or girl enters the school doors, a punishable offence, and the discovery of such intercourse becomes invested with all the suspicions of original sin in children of which the "mature" mind is capable.

Even after five years and the lessons of the war, I still find this attitude in the girls' school in which I teach. Although most of the children are of better-class parents (the compulsory percentage of ex-elementary scholars, who secure the school grant, being a small one) the words "lover," "fall in love," "sweetheart," "babies," still produce the giggles of embarrassed or curious girlhood. A tendency to "have secrets," to compare the bows on one another's pigtails with much head-tossing, to be self-conscious when called upon to play a part in the public eye and to blush when criticised, all these traits are to be found throughout the school, though they tend to be modified as the children grow older.

Yet many of the girls are fine, independent people, capable of playing their part as prefects, games' captains, presidents of school societies; potential mates of men, who are most of them putting their best energies into the effort of becoming independent of men, striving ambitiously to perfect their intellects, while their hearts remain decorous organs, ignorant of the pains and joys of real life.

What of my co-school? It was a happy family of girls and boys, men and women, working as complements, as equals, with no hysterical striving after women's rights among the feminine members, nor the showing of contemptuous superiority among the masculine element. The natural differences between man and woman were never glossed over; although the girls and boys shared work, games (with the exception of football) and recreation, the girls were taught to be content sometimes to leave the more boisterous animal side of boy nature to itself and the boys to treat the physical weaknesses and capriciousness, which our novelists assure us is the charm of feminine nature, with tenderness and forbearance.

In their work it was noticeable that though the two sexes might be equal in capacity and diligence in the Junior School, from twelve years onwards the "work-force" tended to show itself unevenly. The boy with his greater instinct for self-preservation slacked frankly and unashamedly till his sixteenth year brought the pressure of examinations; then he seemed with small effort to cover the ground he had lost. The girl tended to overwork or contrariwise to be absent-mindedly careless as adolescence came upon her, but she would usually work harder than the boy all through her four or five years in the Senior School, and show signs of staleness as examinations approached. Also where choice of subjects was possible, the boy would make for the mechanical, mathematical, analytical side, while the girl threw in her lot with the more creative, biological, synthetical side. Whatever each chose, the average member of the school, girl or boy, was an open-minded, vital, intelligently co-operative being, a citizen in little.

My reader will have been exclaiming, "But with these differences in pace and force in work, how was it possible to teach them together? Could any common standard be set or reached?" This brings me to my second point of difference between the old and the new school, that of standardisation.

I find in my present school the same division that obtained five years ago between examination and "other" subjects, the same tendency on the part of the staff to take but a tepid interest in a child, who discards the academic side and wants to develop along the creative side in art, music or household science. All the forms have a parallel class of "duds," who are not expected to produce many, if any, examination candidates and who are frankly called "stupid." Staff will say mournfully: "Oh, I teach nothing but 'B's' to-day; how depressing!" Although subjects

are taught generally in forms, children from "A" forms sometimes "go down" to "B" classes in mathematics and languages, and their terminal marks suffer accordingly. If an "A" child goes down to "B" in one subject, ten per cent. is taken off her total term's percentage. Examinations are held at the end of every term for half the subjects in each form and in all subjects at the end of the year. Examination totals are then percentaged and added to the term's percentage and the children are classed with red and black "A's," "B's," "C's," and "D's," according as to whether their marks exceed various totals from 25 to 85. Stars are given for conduct, diligence, punctuality, and attendance.

This means that the whole working of the school is based on conformity to a standard—of work, set largely by outside examinations—of conduct, set by the head and staff. Penalties for misbehaviour are automatic. Carelessness marks are given for forgetting books, pencils, date on exercises, wearing the wrong kind of shoes in school, omitting to leave a line between exercises. Disorder marks for talking in class or at the end of the morning without leave, disobedience, unruliness. The children expect these penalties, which they can cancel through the term if they pass a fortnight without fresh lapses, all except a neglect mark for bad work.

Now this system of automatic penalties has both its good and bad sides. Good, in that it teaches children the law of cause and effect and helps to strengthen them for probable undeserved censure and punishment in later life. [It is, of course, an inestimable boon to harassed staff teaching classes of 27 and 32!] On the other hand, although in a well-run form with two good form-leaders (one chosen by the children), public feeling will make life unpleasant for the hardened offender, yet it does *not* teach children to reason about authority, law and discipline and to realise that selfish lack of consideration for the welfare of the whole community is a greater sin than the forfeiting of a red star for conduct and diligence. In the short time during which one sees one's form each day, I have tried to make a persistently untidy, forgetful child, whose carelessness marks stretched across the page of the mark-book before half term, see that to "keep on a-keepin' on" in these faults was thoughtless to form and staff, not merely a nuisance which entailed coming to report herself every day. I found surprise that I should treat this matter individually and take trouble to explain the workings of the law. "Very bad for the child, arguing with her about authority," I can hear the old-fashioned teacher say, but it is just that attitude, often necessitated by large numbers and lack of time, of dealing with conduct in the mass, that makes the growing child often look upon the teacher as someone who, in company with her parents and the Almighty, are deputising for the policeman.

In the pioneer school, on the other hand, the staff are primarily friends and fellow workers, helping the child to build up a community most helpful for his or her future development as a citizen. The child is taught that he has to educate himself under the guidance of the staff, that conditions are being adapted for him to explore, during the sheltered years of childhood and adolescence, the possibilities in the world around him, to make mistakes which the mature will help him to put right, although they cannot take away from him the inevitable consequences of foolish or wrong acts, to create freely and happily in a little world where money and influence count for nothing and work can be done joyfully for the work's sake. He knows that the teacher is continually trying to understand his point of view, at the same time that he is holding up before him a standard, an ideal, always a little beyond his reach, namely the standard of his most real and divine self.

In the school curriculum I believe the only possible method for the training of children along such lines, is a modified form of the Dalton plan, by which

children are graded in everything according to capacity and are taught to plan their own work under the guidance of the staff. A child, who knows the outline of his work for the coming five years, learns to make better use of his time, to work with greater zest, to research into various ways of tackling a subject, than a child who is given so and so much work from week to week, which will forfeit marks if not given in at a certain time, and which can bring no outward certificate of merit but a yearly removal with his or her form.

The big "but" is, of course, examinations. Few parents in this difficult post-war England are willing or able to approve of their children working at their own pace. They struggle heroically to give them a career to fit them for after life, but—and this is the irony of it—often they pinch and scrape to give the children they have created material assurance, while tacitly encouraging, in their acquiescence in the methods of heads and staff, the stultifying of the very spirit of the child. Most of the rubbish talked by the so-called disciplinarian about the "hardening of the child" is but a cowardly attempt to protect him from the suffering which the world metes out to those who live in the spirit, and it only helps to people the coming generation with materialistic, resentful or incapable dreamers who fear life where they should rejoice in the testing it gives their dreams.

And we teachers—how our repressions testify against us, causing us so often to refuse to the child the means of attaining the very things for which we ourselves have most bitterly longed. If we teachers lived *dangerously*, no parents, no universities, no Board of Education inspectors, no business men and no governments could stand against us. But we are human, have our own ties and responsibilities, and so make friends with the Mammon of Unrighteousness.

In conclusion I will sum up the differences between the old and the new type of schools as one of segregation versus co-operation, standardisation versus care for the individual, intellectualisation versus the intuitional method. But let the lonely pioneers in old-fashioned schools throughout the country take courage and learn of the widespread change of heart not merely in England but all over the world. In the July (1925) number of the *New Era* there is a list of pioneer schools including not only a large number in England and Scotland, but in almost every European country. This movement, therefore, is not an isolated aberration of England, the proverbial home of everybody else's cranks, but a proclamation of the inherent divinity of the child, which it is our work to foster lovingly and courageously. Let pioneers go out from the happy society of the like-minded and live dangerously in the old schools, where teachers are pathetically anxious for their message, although their conventional, prejudiced, comfortable selves want at first to jeer at those who would prophesy the reign of trust and service. Even the business men have this month admitted that only Christianity can save the nation from national shipwreck; surely then we teachers, hampered though we are by conditions no business man would tolerate, can, whatever our religious beliefs, work for the shaping of a better race than our own, bravely and generously.

A New Approach to Drawing in Vienna Schools*

By Hans Günther

(*Bürgerschule, Muthsamgasse*, 1, *Vienna* 13)

(*Examiner in Free-hand Drawing on the Vienna Board of Examiners for Special Subjects. Herr Günther works in Vienna as a teacher of drawing. His class is visited by many educationists from other countries who are studying the School Reform Movement in Austria*)

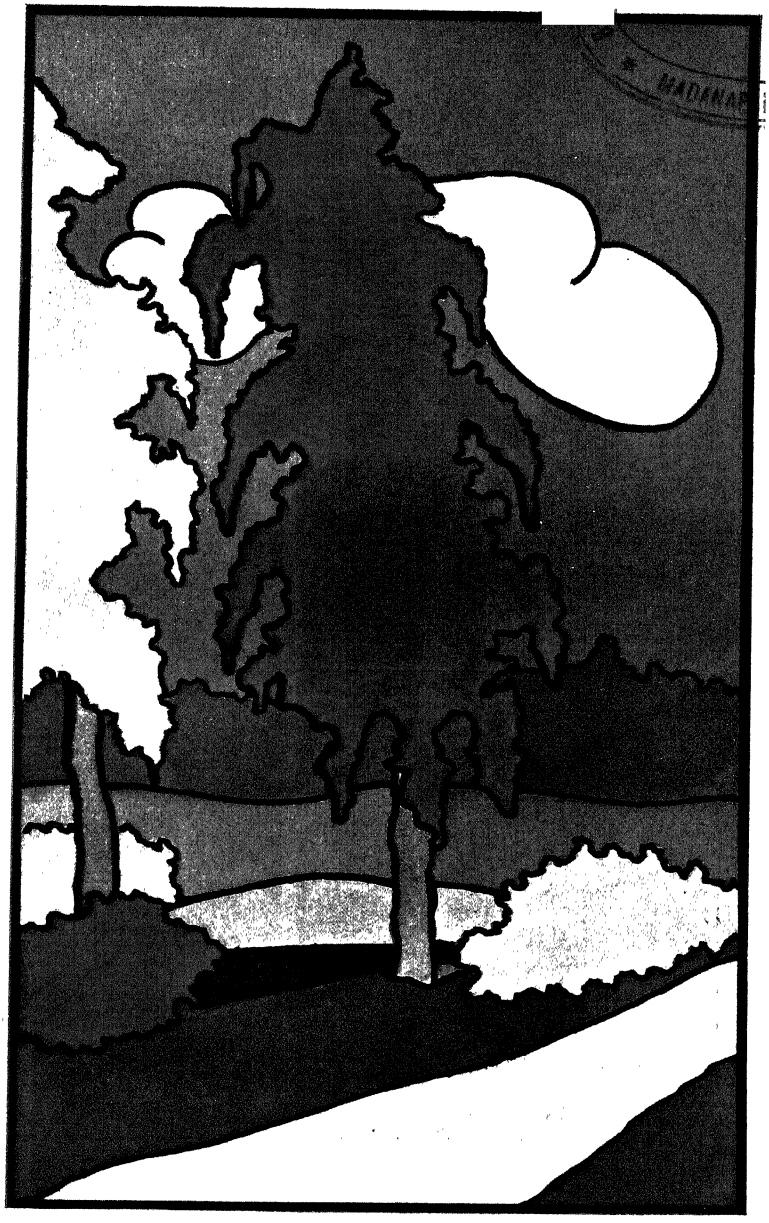
Reform in educational matters in Austria has given a decidedly new turn to the teaching of drawing. A short time ago no attention was paid to the creative faculty in children: to-day the basis of all successful and beneficial instruction is just this creative faculty. The child's powers must be awakened, developed and cultivated.

Drawing is no longer merely part of a young lady's education; it is a valuable mental exercise; the recognition of this fact is at the root of present-day teaching in drawing. Children learn to count and to write; they can learn in the same way to draw. Drawing used to be taught first by means of models and then later from nature. A teacher, for example, would ask for a drawing of a butterfly from nature, but would find that only a few pupils were able to draw it as they saw it poised before them; these pupils were looked upon as good or even talented drawers. The large proportion of the children would sit gazing at the butterfly not in the least knowing how they should tackle their task. But, in order to do at least something, they drew a butterfly from imagination, and not from sight. This was creative work. Therefore, since to-day and in the future teachers will have to reckon with children who have no special talent, the creative faculty must be the basis of instruction.

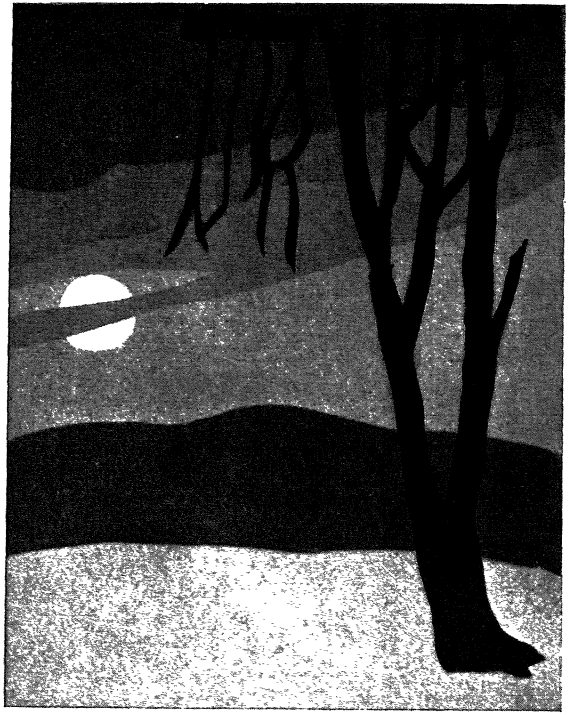
The province of imagination needs, naturally, methodical expansion and enrichment. The whole subject-matter of instruction should draw upon practical life, and should be divided into so-called spheres of facts appropriate to the age of the child. The beginning should be made within the narrow environment immediately surrounding the child: family, rooms, house, yard, garden, road to school, wood, field, seasons of the year, etc., and should be expanded little by little as the child's imagination expands. These spheres of facts supply a mixture of subjects for drawing which give all children much pleasure at all times. They should, of course, see and observe all these things with their own eyes; the teacher should go out with them and give them their lesson out of doors. They soon learn to see, to recognise, and to understand much that before escaped their notice, and the teacher finds himself under a continuous cross-fire of questions. Observations made and impressions gathered during one of these study-walks are found to provide material for instruction over quite a lengthy period of time.

Let us take a practical example. It is spring-time, and the teacher takes his children for a study-walk. They see the spring with their own eyes—budding trees and branches, flowers, butterflies, farmers working, etc. In class the subject is now set thus: To-day we shall draw a butterfly. Each child with great delight then draws a butterfly of some kind. This first drawing is, of course, purely one from imagination; from it the teacher can get a clear idea of just how much a butterfly means in each child's imagination. Then comes general class correction: all the drawings are pinned to the blackboard and are criticised by the children. Great is the criticism thereof! They scan and judge noticeably, shrewdly and closely, and easily pick out faults. The results of this class criticism are then gathered together and the children are interrogated by the

* See note page 88.



Water-colour Study of Trees by Pupil of Herr Günther, aged



Landscape. Paper Cuts.

Etching by pupil aged 13 years

teacher in order to arrive at a complete explanation of their remarks. The butterfly thus becomes the object of a close discussion—the formation of the body, the disposition of the wings, symmetry, adornment, etc.—at the end of which each child once more draws one, this time with understanding and with a grasp of its real form. Once the form has been grasped the children can let themselves go over the wings and their adornment. The result is a piece of pure creative work, an artificial, not a natural, form. This butterfly drawn from imagination is a set form out of which a taste either for studies from nature or for decorative art may be developed. The objection is sometimes raised that the pupil in this way learns to draw only a set form. It is a set form certainly, but one that in any case typifies transition. The moment the choice of wing forms, or of decoration, is left to the child, the drawing ceases to be a set form. No correction should be made by the teacher's pencil. He can by interrogation draw the child's attention to faults, or he can allow him to experiment for himself. For instance, a child may represent a running man as bending backwards instead of forwards. The teacher should then get the child to try to run in this position; he will soon find that no one can run bending backwards, and he will at once set about correcting his drawing.

Another example to show that the set form stage is but transitory. After general discussion a tree is drawn. Set form must here disappear. The teacher tells the children much of the life of a tree, as for instance: A tree's life isn't as happy as yours; it stands out in the open air summer and winter, in heat and in cold; its bark becomes cracked and its branches twisted and broken off by storms; it has to bear all the roughness of the weather, and so it cannot grow naturally as its comrades do in glass-houses. During the telling the children share in the experiences of the tree, and being now in the right mood, set themselves to draw, say, a tree in a storm. They put into the drawing a great deal of what they have heard and of what in imagination they have shared. There will be no trace of set form; the drawing will be vital and harmonious.

Studies from nature are not neglected, but are carried out only by older children of 12, 13, or 14 years of age, who have already some skill in drawing, observation and comprehension. Younger children are, and should be, restricted to observation of nature. The prior discussion of a subject, its formation and function, takes with these younger children the place of studies from nature. Thus grounded, a child beginning studies from nature will know how to set to work and will be able intelligently to compose his pictures. He will begin his drawing of a tree, for instance, with the trunk and not with a leaf, as many children do.

The methodical strengthening of the creative faculty often shows at an older age fine, even astonishing work, not only with a pencil, but also in woodcuts, etchings, clay modellings, coloured paper picture-making, paper stencils, etc. The employment of these different mediums is of immense importance, as the children use different materials and tools, and learn that the carrying out of any certain piece of work depends, in the first place, upon the material. This is called the language of material. By experimenting with different mediums each child discovers that with which he has most skill, and will go happily to work certain of producing something. The aim is not the training of artists; some sense of beauty and understanding of the graphic arts should be included in an all-round education.

The principle underlying our teaching of drawing in the Vienna schools is that the creative faculty in the child is the basis of instruction; this faculty, guided intelligently by the teacher, produces fine work. The former strict order and quiet of the classroom has passed away under the exigencies of many different kinds of work; the classroom is now a studio where the children can exchange their ideas and plan work with each other.

(*Translated by Muriel Mackenzie*).

The Art of Not Minding One's Own Business

By G. Y. Elton, B.A. (Cantab.)

(*Frensham Heights, Surrey*)

Mr. W. F. Taylor sat and watched some American bricklayers doing their work one day, having an idea that in the 7,000 years or so during which bricks of different kinds have been laid, bricklayers might not have noticed that they were moving about their business in a rather cumbrous and circuitous way. He found what he expected, and as a result of this inspiration (nobody having had the notion of sitting down and watching a bricklayer with this particular object during the last 7,000 years, and equally, no bricklayer having thought of watching himself for such a purpose), Taylor pointed out a few simple changes by the effect of which a workman could for ever after lay in one hour the number of bricks that he had laid in three hours in the world's history till that date. It isn't surprising that certain people feel a sort of shock to their system when they hear in a similar way that they have perhaps not done a single second's useful thinking about their life's work since they started upon it, and, still worse, that possibly nobody has done any useful thinking about it since the world began. When a perfectly ordinary uninitiated person, armed with just the necessary equipment of knowing nothing whatever about their profession, by strolling in and making idiotically simple remarks, noticing idiotically simple things, proves able to give them vitally important hints that change the whole face of their work, they feel excusably disturbed. The idea is sufficiently staggering to anybody; to people engaged in teaching it is so staggering, as Prof. Claparède* is fond of pointing out, that most of them are not even aware that it has hit them yet.

This idea of a person's so fruitfully neglecting his own business, and bringing his mind to bear on all the things that he knows nothing about, thus producing world-shaking discoveries, has in fact some very large and startling bearings on education. It hits schools and children and teachers from two sides. First, teachers have to take the hint and learn to neglect their business at intervals so that they can do it better; and secondly, while teachers are doing their business, it is necessary that someone else who knows nothing about it should come and look at it and make eye-opening simplifications and improvements.

To begin with the teachers themselves; they are under a handicap in being the victims of a general plot agreed upon by the public to suggest that they ought to know everything about the subject they teach, including especially the most depressing, insignificant, inhuman, out-of-the-way, wearying, rubbishy sides of it. This feeling of being professionally bound with heavy chains to a particular casual and arbitrarily-chosen subject, gives them a certain sensation of lack of adventure, such as they would have if tied by the feet in one room and compelled to listen to the conversation of one person for several years; their youthful enthusiasm for it cools. What they ought to be doing is studying all the possible subjects that there is no hope of their ever getting to know a great deal about, and handing on to their pupils the points they have picked up in these. Because you may be quite certain that if omniscience clogs the teacher, it clogs the children a great deal more, and the spirit of amateurish elasticity that has suddenly appeared in their teacher when he talks about something of which he is quite ignorant, is the spirit in which they approach, and

* See Ed. Claparède, La Psychologie de l'Enfant (English translation published by E. Arnold, Lon.), and lectures at L'Institut Rousseau, Geneva, passim.

need to approach, every subject under the sun, if their growth is to proceed healthily.

The fact is that the ordinary division of knowledge into "subjects" is not one that suits the needs of children at all; moreover it has a deeply paralysing effect, not generally noticed, on grown-up people as well. Most new ideas are found by people who work at subjects that they ought not to be working at (just as Taylor, not belonging to a bricklayers' union, ought not to have been walking about in a bricklayer's yard), and one of the difficulties of paying anyone to work at research is that an astronomer may find his best ideas by working for several days upon the psychology of cats, or the angles of crystals, or the fluctuations of the gold-standard, which are not subjects he is paid to study. The fact that the present divisions of knowledge have a very paralysing effect upon scholastic people (isn't the very sound of the word "scholastic" rather like a bath of mud in itself?) is shown in the ghastly unreadableness of most school text-books. Everyone knows they are so deadly that no normal, sane person who was a free agent would ever touch one. Prof. J. H. Robinson, the American historian, in a very excellent book dealing with just this question,* says: "It is being found by those who embark on adult education that text-books make almost no appeal to grown-ups who are free to express their distaste for them." What applies to hardened and logical grown-ups, applies with a hundred times the strength to children, to whom an excess of logic is a violent poison. A good book written for them (just like any good book for anybody) needs to follow the living emotional development of a subject, which no pedant in the world can ever discover, and which is only to be found by the light of a spirit of adventure. To think that hacks can be paid to do it, or that over-worked teachers can do it, shows a perfect misunderstanding of what it means. This is what Mme. Necker de Saussure* had to say on the subject in 1828: "Ce n'est pas sans une sorte d'inspiration qu'on trouve le langage propre a faire impression sur l'enfance. S'il ne lui faut rien de subtil ni de recherché, le ton de la vulgarité ne lui plait pas davantage. Elle aime a pressentir un mystère, quelquechose de plus grand que ce qu'on lui dit, et n'est-ce pas là toujours ce qu'elle entrevoit dans les instructions d'un maître qu'elle révèré? Lui faire apercevoir le côté merveilleux de la vérité est le propre d'un esprit distingué et d'une imagination heureuse" (Book IV., ch. 5). Who is to do it? M. Cousinet, the distinguished leader of school reforms in France, prophesies that in the future all the text-books for schools will be written by children. Yet there are hints in a few delightful instances such as Mr. Van Loon's *Story of Mankind*† that some of the work may be done by grown-up people who are sufficiently far removed from the scholastic atmosphere. But not only to write text-books, even to teach at all, requires a leisure, a freedom, a humanness of environment that outside critics are only vaguely beginning to suspect as yet.

Then there is the second great field in education, for the use of the bright vision of those who know nothing at all about a subject (the childlike vision needed in the Kingdom of God): the task of finding out what is coming of all this business, and whether schools are worth having, and if so why. Teachers can't very well carry on this investigation, because they are almost bound to have a touch of prejudice, rather crude perhaps, but persisting, in favour of a notion that they are worth having, and can hardly view the matter in a cold, scientific light. And besides, they haven't time to do it. Somebody must, though; because hazy disputes will go on for ever about the usefulness of this or that way of teaching, till someone has gone and

*J. H. Robinson, "The Humanizing of Knowledge." New York, G. H. Doran & Co.

*In "l'Education Progressive." Paris, Garnier, 7f.

†London, Harrap.

found out by straightforward testing and observation what exactly does happen as a result of employing one method, and then another method. So you create a class of people called theorists—not because they merely sit and think in armchairs, but because they spend their time in collecting results of other people's teaching experiments and boiling them down (instead of teaching themselves—and merely trying to think, check and improve in odd half-hours). Also it is part of their work to watch the lives of young animals taught by their parents, of animals being taught for circuses, the accounts given of school experiences (from the inside) in autobiographies and children's essays, the methods of teaching used by savages and by institutions other than schools, the accounts given by mental doctors of deformations received by their patients at school, the methods of teaching used by newspapers, advertisers, theatres, booksellers, mind-healers, librarians, university professors, ancient nations; and the methods of self-teaching used by people when left to themselves, and a thousand other things. To do this is somebody's whole-time job, and governments that have not yet paid somebody to do it, are taking more trouble about the efficiency of drains than they are about the efficiency of institutions that make the souls of all their citizens.

The Jean Jaques Rousseau Institute at Geneva and Its Work in the International Field.

By Max Hockstaetter

THE J. J. Rousseau Institute, which was founded in 1912 by Dr. Edouard Claparède, Professor of Experimental Psychology at the University of Geneva, is primarily a school of educational sciences, but it is also a research, information and propaganda centre. In a paper written in 1912, to show the reasons for setting up this Institute, Dr. Claparède expressed himself as follows:

The Institute as a Research Centre. The investigations which are needed for the advancement of the science of education are both long and arduous; they require numerous documents which have to be carefully collected, criticised, co-ordinated and compared. The work of an Institute of Educational Sciences will therefore extend to collecting all this material, compiling from it such statistics as may be desirable and bringing to light the social factors which hamper the growth of the human plant. In addition to this it will be able to undertake certain enquiries itself and engage in a number of specific experiments.

The Institute as an Information Centre. A large number of persons already engaged in educational work feel the need for keeping in touch with the research work carried out in the field of psychopedagogics, or may be desirous of undertaking certain investigations themselves.

The Institute as a Propaganda Centre. Educational reform is largely dependent upon the education of public opinion. The problem here is not merely that of school reform. What is required is that in the family, in commerce, in industry and in public life, due respect should be paid to the rights of the child: its right to wholesome food, cleanliness, sleep, to such measure of freedom as it requires for its physical and moral development, its right to recreation, and its right to health. This involves a humanitarian and social problem of tremendous importance which an Institute of Educational Sciences cannot ignore.

Although circumstances—the particular needs of its didactic and scientific work, not to mention the confusion resulting from the war—have hitherto prevented it from developing its programme of work on all points, the Rousseau Institute has nevertheless, during the thirteen years of its existence, carried out extensive work on international lines, notwithstanding the fact that most of its connections are in Geneva and Switzerland. From the outset it had the advantage of the support of an International Committee of Patrons, including among its members eminent men such as Emile Boutroux, Sir William Ramsay, Stanley Hall, Ernst Meumann, Ernest Solvay, Charles Wagner, Gabriel Compayré, to mention but those who are no longer with us.

As regards the nationality of its students, the J. J. Rousseau Institute has been wholly international in character. From 1912 to 1925 less than one half of its students were of Swiss nationality; the remainder belonged to more than thirty-five nationalities.

Furthermore, the J. J. Rousseau Institute has been active in the international field in the following ways:—

The publication in its *Collection d'Actualités pédagogiques* of the works of authors in various countries (England, Germany, France, Belgium, United States and Switzerland);

The convening in 1919, of an International Meeting of Educationists, in connection with the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom;

The convening, in 1920, of the first International Conference on Psychotechnics;

The organisation of a third International Congress on Moral Education (1922);

The convening, in 1922, at the Secretariat of the League of Nations, of a Conference on Esperanto Teaching in Schools;

Teaching work in connection with the Summer School organised by the international "Save the Children Fund."

Mention should further be made of the course of university lectures given by Prof. Pierre Bovet on the subject of "Education and Peace," and his book on *The Fighting Instinct* (1907), which lays the psychological groundwork of anti-bellicose education.

The J. J. Rousseau Institute has furthermore organised a large number of lectures by foreign "savants" and educationists. Several of these have spoken on questions connected with international life. Among them may be mentioned MM. Nitobé, of the Secretariat of the League of Nations, Tchou-Wéi and Mayeda, permanent delegates to the League of Nations, Mlle. Colin, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, Dr. H. Overstreet, Professor at New York, etc.

It should be added that the J. J. Rousseau Institute has on several occasions been able to collaborate with several of the offices of the great international associations whose centres are in Geneva, and that it has at all times been on excellent terms with them.

From the time of its foundation, the J. J. Rousseau Institute has in fact acted as an international information centre: requests for information are received from all countries. Its work in this connection underwent a further development at the time when the *Bureau internationale des Ecoles nouvelles* (International Bureau of New Schools) became one of its sections.

Founded in 1899 by Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, the *Bureau internationale des Ecoles nouvelles* has, for more than twenty-five years, been in touch with the majority of European and American schools concerned with experimental work and the application of new methods. The documentary information thus collected has enabled a large number of studies and a whole series of books to be published.

Musical Design*

An account of Prof. Oskar Rainer's Original Experiments in "Musikalische Graphik"

(Prof. Rainer is Graduate and Prizeman of the Academy of Plastic Arts, and of the University of Vienna; Lecturer in the Pedagogical Institute; Member of the Board of Examiners for Higher Elementary School Teachers; Member of the School Reform Commission and Inspector of Drawing and Art in Secondary Schools and Teachers' Training Colleges, Vienna; Author of "Naturgemasser Zeichenunterricht"—The Teaching of Natural Drawing—and other Scientific Treatises)

By Muriel M. Mackenzie

THIS account of Professor Rainer's work in Vienna is taken from his book *Musikalische Graphik*,† a book well worth the while of all to whom the musical and graphic arts mean anything, to read even haltingly and with much thumbing of a dictionary, for the sake of the extraordinary inspiration of it and for the light it pours upon the correlation of the arts. The idea underlying his method, and the method itself are Prof. Rainer's own; he drew his inspiration from much thought upon the arts. The point of departure of his experiments and of his teaching is quite other than those of any other worker in this field of whom we have yet heard. The book, therefore, is most valuable to everyone interested in education. In this small space it is of course almost impossible to give anything but a bare outline of his experiments and a brief description of the illustrative plates, almost all the work of children. In considering the plates it should be borne in mind that they are very much reduced in size and that therefore they give hardly any idea of the life and movement of the originals.

In 1913 Prof. Rainer, investigating another subject, stumbled upon a fact which seemed to him to throw some light upon the problem of the correlation of sound and colour. He at once began to experiment in school with his pupils, mostly boys between the ages of 11 and 13, and the very first trial convinced him that he had hit upon something of extraordinary educative value, something by which the perception of abstract form and colour might be developed in the individual. He began to look for music in design and traced its first beginnings to the Pompeian wall paintings and Byzantine mosaics. Wherever northern blood influenced southern culture the abstract elements of expression influenced the more material forms. The North gives us the expressive song; the South, the aria. Even in classical Greek art the influence of the North can be seen; in the Three Fates, for example. The astonishing beauty of the group lies in the majestic lines of the draperies; the rippling play of the folds, now smoothly flowing, now tossing and dancing over the quiet recumbent figures, yet always harmonising with the motif of the sculpture, may be compared to the brilliant runs in music mingling with the theme. In our own day, too, the influence of music on design is apparent. Can Schwind the painter be understood apart from Schwind the musician, Schwind the ardent violinist? Every line he drew must have been a song to him. In his work and in the work of others of his and our times the influence of musical expression on design can be recognised quite easily.

Prof. Rainer began to apply his method to problematical intuitive work in nature study. With garden and field flowers as

* See note page 88.

† *Musikalische Graphik.* Oskar Rainer. Deutscher Verlag für Jugend und Volk Gesellschaft M.B.H., Vienna I, Burgring 9. Also at New York and Leipzig. Price—paper covers, M4.30; cardboard covers, M5; about $1.30 and $1.75, or 4/6 and 5/-

tivel

models, he asked each child to draw or paint in any flower that which appeared to him to be the source of the beauty as a whole, were it form, line or colour. The issue was a perfect melody of lines, colours and surfaces, inspired indeed by nature, yet pure abstract music of colour and line. The children were wildly delighted and quite insatiable. Prof. Rainer then ventured to try the transposition of music directly into colour and design. As he had neither piano nor harmonium in his classroom, he chose a boy who had unusual musical gifts and education, and asked him to call to mind any piece of music he chose vividly enough to associate it with colour and design, and by this means attain to intuitive design. The child, completely possessed by the music welling up in his memory, drew a design suggestive of a landscape which Prof. Rainer instantly recognised as having been inspired by Beethoven. But upon the jubilation that followed, that enemy of innovation, the school inspector, descended and ruthlessly destroyed this new flower springing up in his orderly school garden. Years elapsed before the school reform movement in Austria (1918) gave Prof. Rainer opportunity to apply his method, continued sporadically with a few pupils since 1913, to the wider circle of the classroom.

As in 1913 the experiments were based upon the perception of the value of colour and line as such. Nature studies in colour harmony were begun, special attention being paid to the so-called colour outline, a phenomenon arising out of colour contrast. A highly coloured spot on a neutral ground glows more intensely at its edges, and thus shows within its circumference a fringe of intenser colour. If the colour is especially stimulating, this effect, considerably paler, is noticeable outside the circumference and the spot appears as surrounded by a pale auriole of its own colour; this is called the auriole outline. The contrast is noticeable only at a distance from the auriole outline which it surrounds like a band of shimmering contrasting colour. Between this band and the auriole outline is a neutral zone —a pause in the colour movement—so that the complete colour movement consists of the intense colour outline, the auriole outline, the neutral zone, and the contrasting outline. This phenomenon is easily observable if the spot of colour lies upon a neutral ground, but if the ground be also coloured, interesting complications often arise which in early times formed one of the great problems of painting (Neo-impressionism). Practice in the detection of the phenomenon leads to intuitive perception of colour movement and also of line movement as such. If this perception of the abstract movement of colour and line be developed, the building up of abstract colour and form figures ceases to present difficulties.

The purely melodic employment of line and colour to express certain emotions led to the employment of music to arouse emotion. This resulted from the beginning in a recurrence of certain colour groups during the playing of pieces of music chosen from certain composers. This led to the presumption that recurrent keys cause recurrent colours, which in turn led to the diagnosis of tonal colour. Simple cadences in colour were learned by sound and from the very beginning a surprising conformity was established. Majorities of 60 or 80 out of 100 gave F-major as green, A-major as red-orange, and E-major as red. The experiments were most carefully carried out. Before they began the pupils had no idea of the purpose of these auditory tests; to guard against mutual influence the names of the colours were written on slips so that no one child could know the decision of any other; they were not told the keys in which the pieces were played. It was noticed that the succession of single keys influenced the decision upon a colour, so the order of succession was changed; it was also noticed that when the children were tired their decisions were variable. They soon showed lively interest in the experiments and practised them morning, noon and night, after school and at home. Experi-

ments with piano and harmonium established the fact that the child's favourite colour, the timbre of the instrument, dynamic oscillations, touch and time, all influenced decision. Only when the effect of all these secondary influences had been recognised and either allowed for or eliminated as far as possible, did order and conformity rule in results. It was no easy work, and at first it seemed as if no fixed law could ever be estab-

who could not name a colour they specially liked nor one they specially disliked. There is of course an immense difference between purely physical musical sensibility and purely spiritual, yet Prof. Rainer observed that physical sensibility to music could and did pass into spiritual sensibility through the medium of colour interpretation. Herein lies the whole educative value of these exercises, not alone in the musical and

Strauss' *Radetzky March* shewing typical zig-zag lines of a military march

lished. At first, too, the continua subversion of colours in their contrast was especially bewildering. But just th fact that they were subverted only int their direct contrasts fostered the belie in a law of colour relation. Only 6 pe cent. of the children proved completel lacking in musical sense, i.e., wer entirely insensible to musical impressio and could not distinguish accord fron discord. These were the children whon colours neither attracted nor repelled

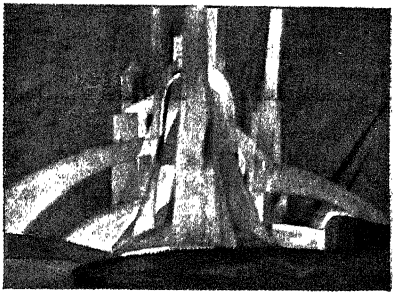
graphic arts, but in moral education as a whole.

The next object of study was the abstract melodious line. A beginning was made with pieces of quite obvious rhythmic differences of movement. Marches, especially quick military marches, gave purely ornamental zig-zag lines, often complicated and intercrossed. Sometimes these lines grouped themselves about an axis symmetrically and in conformity with the construction of the

e

f

h



i

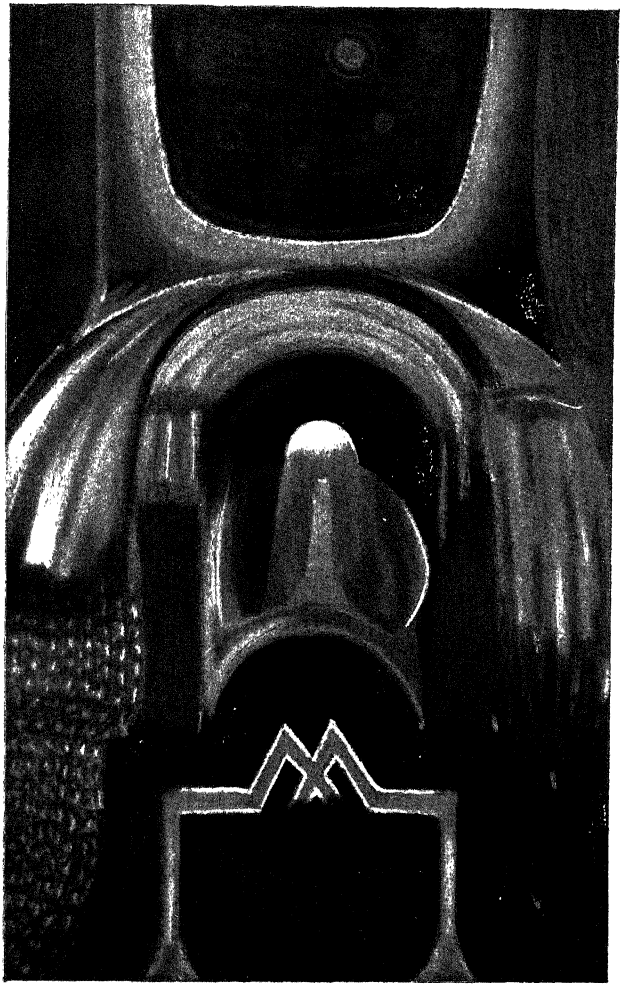
PLATE I

a, c: MOZART
b, d, e, f, i: WAGNER
g, h: GRIEG

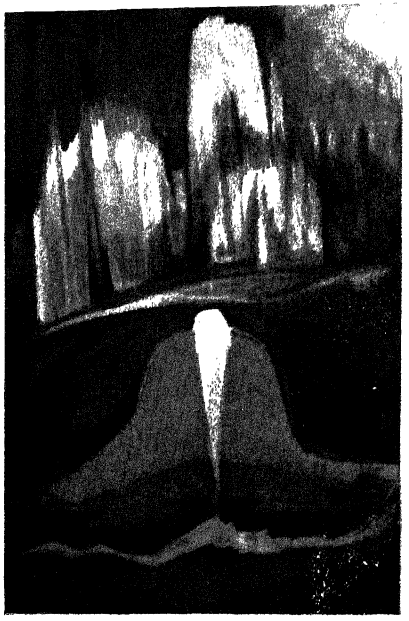
OSKAR RAINER:
Musikalische Graphik

PLATE II

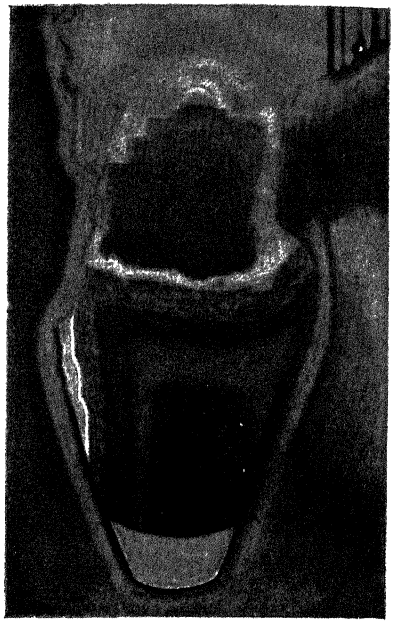
RICHARD STRAUSS



BRUCKNER

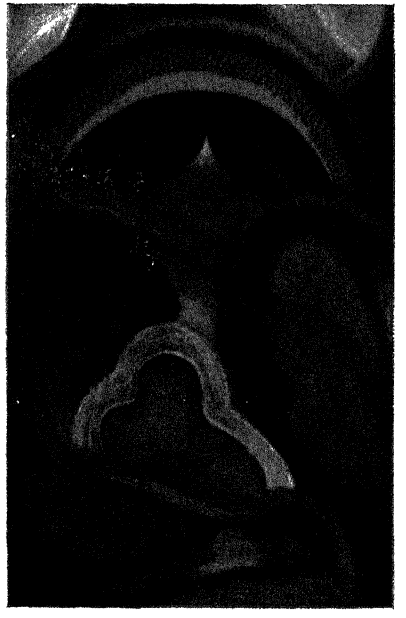


a: WAGNER



b: WAGNER

c: BRUCKNER



d: BEETHOVEN

OSKAR RAINER: Musikalische Graphik

motif. Special observation of this grouping showed the operation of a distinct law. The exact repetition of a motif led back to the beginning of the corresponding set of lines and produced either an exact reproduction or a symmetrical grouping; were the motif a secondary one its repetition produced an altogether new record. Musical writing does not pedantically record each note, but rather the comprehension of the thought inspiring the whole movement, and the place of that movement in the construction of the complete work. But were the conclusion of the repetition harmonically transposed, or the time of the whole motif changed, the new drawing ranged itself either above or below the first, or at an oblique angle to it, so that the alteration in the motif was intuitively recognisable. The difference between the musical design of a march and of a waltz was very apparent. Compared with the sharp zigzag movement of the march, the waltz showed an appropriate flowing, swinging, whirling movement.

Before long the temperament and the national character of the composer began to be recognised in any given musical design, also the meaning of the different movements—warlike, joyful, longing, grief-stricken.

Plate I.—Take the two examples of Mozart, *Minuett* and *Alla Turca* (a) and (c) on **Plate I.** Both incline to angularity, as does much of Mozart's music; both show something of the rococo element; yet each is quite different from the other. Compare the gay regularity of *Minuett* and the curling caprice reminiscent of arabic characters and of the arab tent, in *Alla Turca*. The children were not told the names of these pieces, not one in ten knew them, yet the temperament of the composer clearly underlies each, and each retains its special characteristics. Wagner's *Schmiedelieder* (Blacksmith's Songs) (b) on **Plate I.** was one of the first attempts made in musical design, and shows a certain amount of objectivity. The form of an anvil can be traced, over it a red splash like a piece of glowing iron sparking under the beat of a heavy hammer. The rest of the design is purely subjective, expressing key colour and length of interval dependent upon melody. Example (h), **Plate I.**, is Grieg's *Ase's Tod* (Ase's Death), and shows the pyramidal construction of the light motif in the going down of the sun as the emotional expression of landscape painting. Example (g) shows the same decorative strength of form and colour as (e), but follows different laws of construction and sound. These also were among the first attempts. Examples (d), (e) and (f), the *Pilgrims' Chorus* from *Tannhäuser*, show designs by three different children. Example (d) designed by a quiet and contemplative child, shows the central motif in the piece as coloured light ringing through the darkness. Example (e) is the design of a more technically gifted, and (f) of an impulsive and emotional, child. Example (i) was designed as stage scenery for the *Walhalla* scene in the Rheingold. The design is partly transparent so that sunrise can be simulated by means of lights behind the stage. Walhalla is comprehended as built of light, a gathering of the elements of sunbeams and rainbows into a Fatamorgana, a mirage. Only enough suggestion of a building is given for it to be recognisable as such, so that the attention may be immediately drawn to the musical movement of colour and line and so led back to the musical movement of sound.

Plate II. is the musical design of the waterfall in Strauss's *Alpensymphonie*, This design shows the deep, broad murmur of the forest in C-minor and F-minor; then a very soft and melodious movement in A-flat major, and finally the waterfall itself, in D-flat, running, splashing, singing, roaring. It flashes out in colour after colour, like crystal played upon by the sun. The immobile, heavy and hard quality of the rock, the gushing waters shattering themselves upon it, gradually rounding and smoothing it, are all expressed in symbolical form.

Plate III.—Bruckner's *IX. Symphony* is shown in **Plate III.** Out of the sinister

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS

A PIONEER SCHOOL

(Near Farnham, Surrey, England)

By Muriel M. Mackenzie

FROM all sides to-day the great cry of Youth beats upon the ear: "This is the age of Youth. Youth has come into its own. Youth is everything." Youth would have us believe that the world was made for it, and for it alone. We are driven to the almost unavoidable conclusion that after the age of, say thirty-five, we ought to shuffle off this mortal coil to make room for the great throng of on-coming Youth. Yet in every generation the experience is the same: Youth has always considered maturity as shackles about its eager feet. The point of view of maturity, however, is changing; it is ceasing to regard Youth as a lifeless, spiritless lump of clay fit only to be moulded into certain forms. The thinker of to-day, pondering upon the strange lack of common-sense and the superabundance of inflated self-appreciation that characterises present-day Youth, recognises the workings of an eternal and universal urge towards freedom; realises that there is a momentous question to be considered, a great work to be done, if the demand of Youth for freedom is to be met with wisdom and turned to the advantage of the world at large. Youth allowed to go out into the world without training, without having mastered the fundamental rules of existence—reducible perhaps almost to a minimum, but that minimum essential—will soon and most effectively ruin its own cause, make confusion worse confounded. It is this realisation of the importance of preparing Youth for life as it really is that has inspired the starting of so many pioneer schools, among them Frensham Heights.

Mrs. Ensor and Miss King, the Principals, both have wide educational experience, and for the last few years have been associated with the St. Christopher School, Letchworth. They look upon this school at Frensham Heights as a laboratory in which they may test the conclusions to which they have come. This article is in answer to many requests that they should share with other teachers from time to time their experiences and difficulties in starting a school, as these might be of use to the educational world.

They would have preferred to have been able to build the kind of school they believe to be the best, i.e., a main school block and several smaller houses, so that the children could have more family life than is possible when they are all in one large house. But as they had a nucleus of children from St. Christopher School and a wide educational connection, it was essential to start at once. The first problem was to find suitable premises. Four essentials there had to be:

1. It must not be more than forty miles from London.
2. It must not be too far in the country.
3. It must have beauty.
4. It must have flat playing-fields.

About four hundred houses in Kent, Sussex and Surrey were looked at before Frensham Heights was found, with all four essentials.

The House and Grounds

An hour's run by quick train from the smoke and darkness of London brings one to the pretty, climbing, little town of

Farnham, swept by moorland air. A three-mile climb up typical Surrey roads; then the long, sandy drive winding under pine trees and past clearings in which heather and bilberry flourish, leading to the long, red, gabled house, open to south-east, south and west, and sheltered by pine woods to the north and north-east. From the windows of the house and from the grassy terraces that stretch its whole southern length, there is a magnificent view far over Surrey and Hampshire. Rolling woods and fields, lakes half-hidden among trees, stretch out to the soft blue distance where the hills sweep up before their final precipitous leap into the Sussex plain. On the west the terraces end in a plantation; on the east in a great grassy wheel, the spokes and the hub of which are flowerbeds, and the rim a hedge of evergreens. Another grassy aisle leads to a large round lily-pond from which steps ascend to a summerhouse looking out into the quiet distance and the immense reaches of the sky. Beyond is the orchard with abundance of fruit, a considerable quantity of which is grown under glass. Here, and in the seven-acre kitchen-garden, the children will be responsible for a small amount of the work. The grounds, eighty acres in extent, include pine woods and heather as well as grass, and there are two level six-acre playing-fields. A number of beautiful walks lead to different parts of the grounds, up hill and down dale.

Inside the house the rooms are large, high-ceilinged and light. The lounge, where the children gather in free time and in the evening, and where they spend the silent half-hour after lunch, contains a fine organ, a valuable possession for the school. The dormitories upstairs are airy and light, plainly and cheerfully furnished, and no dormitory holds more than four. The house is centrally heated but there are, in addition, large wood or coal fires in the public rooms. Certain alterations had to be made in the buildings. The large stable and garage were converted into the school block, which now comprises chemistry and physics laboratories, eight classrooms and a large studio, Principals' offices, necessary cloakroom accommodation, music cubicles, an enclosed court, and a stable which eventually will be converted into a gymnasium. One of the cottages, among trees, was made into a large craftshop, and it is hoped later to adapt other portions of the buildings for weaving, pottery and printing. Other cottages on the estate were fitted up as staff premises. The sunny winter garden was turned into the Montessori room, and affords plenty of space for movement. Here are all the babies' apparatus, their stretchers for the noonday rest, their little dining-room, and the corner that is screened off for a library. Next door are their cloakrooms and lavatories. The Montessori furniture and equipment look quite ridiculously small in their large and lofty home; grown-ups unaccustomed to the room walk with care, unable to adjust themselves to the contrast between the height of the roof and that of the furniture. The little folk are happiness personified, though they wear a grave and preoccupied air when work demands.

All these alterations necessarily meant a goodly expenditure, but the Principals believed that it was not worth while to start a laboratory school unless it could be at least as well equipped as an ordinary up-to-date school. The very expression "laboratory school" implies that special conditions should be provided, as well as a staff large enough to allow of research work. Since the laboratory school would defeat its purpose if it existed for the children of the rich only, capital should also be provided to make the conditions of work such as would really be useful in their results to the educational world. Unfortunately, however, almost all pioneer schools, which in England are as a rule private enterprises, suffer from lack of finance. Frensham Heights is no exception to the rule.

Principles

Youth cannot attain its kingdom at one bound; it must walk before it runs, creep before it walks. The Child of to-day is the Youth of to-morrow. Give Youth its

rights, let it enjoy the full responsibilities of its kingdom, but equip it to use them and to bear them properly. Self-control, self-discipline, self-reliance, capability, tolerance, spaciousness of outlook—Youth must realise, at least, all these essentials to the justification of its claim to freedom.

As Frensham Heights is only two terms old, little has as yet been accomplished. Indeed, the Principals wish to go slowly; though of course the atmosphere of the new school is already established—its happy home life, its freedom, its study of the individual child, its abolition of competition, artificial rewards and punishments, and arbitrary discipline. Just as the fundamental principle in New Education is that growth should come from within the child, so Mrs. Ensor and Miss King believe that the school must develop spontaneously from within. Therefore, though they study all the newer methods of education, and while the principles or line of development will be based on the New Psychology as a matter of course, they do not believe in imposing or adopting any one system. It was essential, too, to gather together as staff a band of men and women who, dissatisfied with the methods of education in ordinary schools, were willing to sacrifice Burnham Scale salaries and State pensions for the sake of the ideals they held. The school commenced with fifty-six pupils ranging in age from 3 to 18, the sexes equally divided.

For co-education to be successful, there must be sufficient faith in the boys and girls to let them live, work and play together. It is useless to deny that the older boys and girls form friendships, but if wisely guided, the experiences of these friendships may be of great value in the development of character. It follows that no pioneer school should be so large that the Principal or Principals cannot know all the girls and boys intimately. It also follows that it is of no importance whether the Principals are men or women, provided they have the right type of personality for a school of this kind, and that there are an equal number of men and women on the staff. It is as a rule unwise to accept children over 14 as pupils in a co-educational school unless they have been at a co-educational school previously, though there are of course exceptional cases. It is essential also to have an equal number of boys and girls, and not to accept boys who are to be prepared for public school, otherwise there will be a majority of girls in the higher classes.

To supply the lack of separate houses as far as may be, the children are divided into school companies, each under the care of an adviser (one of the staff), and a sub-adviser (one of the older pupils). The advisers, though they issue no commands or orders, keep a general eye upon all members of their company—on their work, their play, their health, their personal appearance, etc., and act as guides, philosophers, and friends to the little home circles in their charge. Each company has a name, a motto, and a hero. One is the Mountaineers, whose motto is "Perseverance" and whose hero is Mallory; another is Les Chevaliers, whose motto is "Courtesy" and whose hero St. George; a third is the Co-operators, whose motto is "Co-operation" and whose hero is Lincoln. As adviser and advised should be in sympathy, it is sometimes necessary for a pupil to change from one group to another.

Methods

As children of all ages joined the school, there are pupils preparing for both London Matriculation and Intermediate examinations and also for Entrance examinations into the Universities. For lessons the junior and senior departments are divided into subject groups, to which they are attached according to their proficiency. The usual modification of the Dalton plan has been adopted for the time being, but it is hoped to experiment further with both curriculum and timetable. Wide choice of work is given in each subject, and much importance is placed upon

original work of all kinds. Methods, of course, are still evolving and will continue to be modified as need arises, but the core of any method will always remain the same: freedom of expression for the individual—and, it may be added, an immense amount of work for the staff! That the new ideals in education require unremitting self-sacrifice, love, watchfulness, and work, on the part of the staff, to an extent not known in the older, rigid types of schools, is at once apparent to anyone who watches the application of these new ideals. Not that much is not required of teachers under the old systems; far from it; but the treatment of each member of a group as an individual means more application, more vigilance, and more study for the teachers than the treatment of a number of children as a class. Children and teachers are gradually gathering and evolving helps for and incentives to study. An ingenious way of teaching languages by means of which even the very small people learn easily and remember what they have learned, has been devised. They make a farm, for instance, out of cardboard and stock it with cardboard animals; they make and play games of Lotto and Happy Families in all kinds of subjects, and learn even Latin thus. History is taught on broad, international principles and some interesting experimental work has been begun by several pupils.

They arrange their own timetables subject to the approval of their advisers, and subject to those broad, unwritten laws to which every child unconsciously conforms if treated as a reasonable being. As to behaviour and work—they are not put on their honour to behave or to work well. It is taken for granted that they will, and they do. One boy candidly said that under the plan of individual timetables and work and no arbitrary punishment, it *was* possible for any member of the school to slack almost as much as he or she liked; but that no one ever did it for long; they found that it really did not pay and that they were regarded as nuisances by the rest. He added that this freedom gave them a sense of moral responsibility. The advisers, also, can always find something in which even a slacker is interested and can awaken his interest through that.

The whole atmosphere of Frensham is one of friendliness and work; teachers and children *are* friends. Religious teaching is non-sectarian. There is Assembly every morning, with music, the repetition of the Lord's Prayer, and a reading or talk. On Sunday mornings the children go to whatever church their parents wish them to attend, and in the evening they have a service of their own in school.

For games the school is divided into two houses—the grey and the green—boys and girls taking part together. The criticism is sometimes heard that mixed games and co-education in general tend to make boys effeminate. Judging by appearance and by "atmosphere" this charge has no foundation as far as the boys at Frensham Heights are concerned. The children have no military drill, the place of which is taken by free exercises and Dalcroze eurhythmics. The whole school turns out every morning at seven for a run, followed by a cold shower, before breakfast. There is regular medical examination. The sane and healthy plan of life shows in the children's straight and lissom figures, their evident physical and mental poise, and in their natural, unaffected manners. The emotional side is satisfied by the cultivation of definite musical appreciation; they hear and are taught to understand and to love good music, and they have a choir and an orchestra of their own. Art, drama, dancing, all give opportunities for creative self-expression. The school is self-governing. That is to say, it is governed by a Council of children and staff. The Council meet two or three times a term, when questions of discipline and administration beyond the power of individual advisers come up for settlement; the settlement arrived at has to be brought before the whole school for ratification.

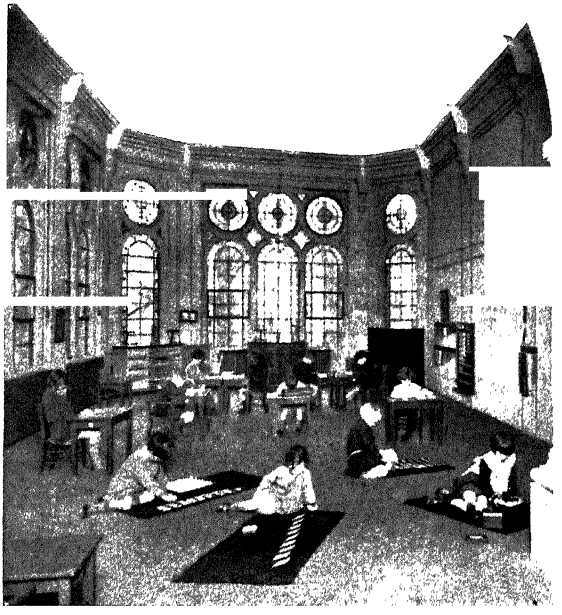
As the majority of the children will have to earn their own living, the manner of life is as simple as possible. They

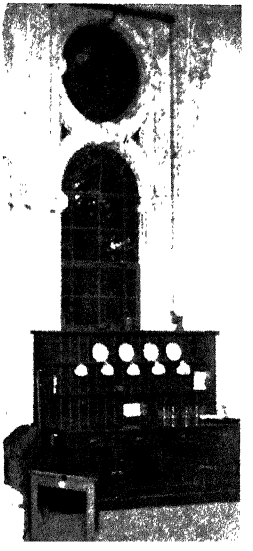
make their own beds and clean their shoes; they wait at table by turns, and on Sunday evenings they prepare and clear away supper and do all the washing-up, in order to give the household staff a completely free evening. On Saturday evenings there is a dance for the whole household in the large hall. The aim is to teach the children to compromise between the new and the old ideals in their outlook on life, for when they leave school they will have to live in and adapt themselves to a world largely governed by old ideas. They are taught that each member of the household is equally valuable and equally important. Slow progression and development are recognised as better than a too hasty forward movement which destroys all that is good in the old order of things.

To the children this school is a home, full of happy work and play, good comradeship and love. But the Principals and staff are always contending with difficulties, trying always to find answers to the baffling questions facing the pioneer and experimenter. They are watching always, altering, modifying, as need arises, with ceaseless vigilance and care. The visitor going down to Frensham Heights and seeing all these happy, young lives, contacting these sincere young minds, remembers with startling clearness the bored and drooping figures in the old classrooms where lessons were dull and life uninteresting, and feels that this surely is work worth while—this struggle, this self-sacrifice, this continual outpouring of self, for the Youth of To-morrow.

Front of House.

The Loung





ri Classroom.

A Woodwork Class.

Factors Determining a Child's Interests

By Dr. Ovide Decroly

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(*Translated by Flora MacColl*)

When we try to discover a child's chief interests in order to help him liberate his inner forces we are faced with several difficulties:—

1. That of understanding the *true* meaning of outer expressions.
2. The part played by environment in the awakening and manifestation of latent interests.
3. The rare possibility of giving the child such conditions as will awaken in him certain important tendencies which would be aroused in a truly *natural* environment.
4. Interests that vary with the times, the age and temperament.
5. Among these interests a choice has to be made as to which we should encourage, which moderate, repress or divert.

As this article is chiefly concerned with points 4 and 5 we will deal but briefly with the first three.

(1) It is not always possible to discover a child's real motives. Of these he himself is generally ignorant.

(2) The environment offered by Nature is the richest and truest, the most varied and best ordered. It is from Nature that man acquired his first ideas. To her he had to learn to adapt himself in order to maintain life and to prosper. To her he looked for his means of existence, for materials with which to build shelter, to make his weapons, clothes, tools, machines, household utensils, furniture, ornaments, roads of communication and transport, and even instruments with which to express his thought and imagination.

Such an environment awakens latent tendencies; it offers the faculties opportunities for expression along normal lines, and stimulates both thought and action. Natural surroundings are best for the awakening of interests and for their stimulation. Unfortunately for our children natural surroundings are exceptional. And this brings us to our third point.

(3) No school can give the child a truly natural setting, as our present civilisation makes this impossible. Whether the child lives at home or at school he has his first needs cared for and more than fulfilled. In all families, except the very poorest, the children are fed, rested, sheltered, protected from inclement weather, hunger and danger. Thus most of the *natural* stimuli to activity are missing.

For children who have attained a certain age a less imperfect environment can be obtained artificially by means of excursions when, owing to circumstances, sleep and meals may be retarded or bad weather may come upon the children unexpectedly.

Variety of Interests

Constitution and Temperament

We now reach the fourth point.

(A) One cause of differentiation of interests is physical and should be viewed under two aspects:—

(a) The static or structural.

(b) The dynamic or functional.

The first of these corresponds to what is usually called *Constitution*, the second to *Temperament*.

In the discovery of an individual's more permanent attitude and reactions this physical cause is of first importance.

Affective Tendencies, the Egoistic and Altruistic

(B) a second factor to be considered is the *state of tendencies, of affectivity.* This factor is of course a complex one, and, being the result of combined elements, cannot be reduced to simple terms. Two extreme manifestations can, however, here be distinguished. The egoistic tendency (egocentricity), and the altruistic (exocentricity). In egocentricity there is a predominance of such instincts as relate to preservation of the individual (physical needs, amour-propre, instincts regarding personal property) and a deficiency of those instincts that relate to preservation of the species (sympathy, maternal, family, group instincts). In exocentricity the latter instincts predominate.

To tendencies may be added habits which are derived from these as well as from intellectual development and from the educative effect of environment. All these factors combine and react upon one another.

Also the physical factor influences the affective and vice-versa.

Affectivity, dominated by temperament, is one component of the forces that are stimulated by the instincts. Instincts react also on temperament. An abundance of physical energy produces more marked instinctive expression. A child's physical state will be more or less protected according as his instincts are selfish and inferior, or altruistic and superior; his organism will claim what he needs more or less imperatively; his sleep will be more profound and more restful; he will be more inclined to movement and will thus enjoy better health, better physical balance, he will imitate and play more actively. Inversely the force of instinct aids physical balance, for when affective dispositions are well suited to the child's age they help the organism to unfold harmoniously so that both constitution and temperament obtain their best and fullest development.

One can foresee what attitude and conduct, and therefore what interests, to expect from a markedly *active temperament* with **egotism dominant.** Evidently the child will be restless, greedy, careless of others except when he wants to take advantage of their sympathy; if he is attractive and made much of he will easily become a little despot, but he will be fond of play, of using his senses and muscles: he will like to examine and manipulate every kind of material, animals, machinery, children of his own age, all that moves, and this with the intention of making appropriations for future experiments.

The opposite type would be the **apathetic altruist,** a type that is rare if not theoretical, for it is hardly possible that an apathetic child would at the same time be altruistic in the real sense of the word.

Between these two types lie many intermediary types having a larger or smaller degree of both temperaments and both forms of affectivity.

The ideal type is the **active altruist,** for in this type the sympathetic tendencies find sufficient reserve energy to enable them to express themselves strongly. But this type can only reveal itself when the specific instincts are developed; when these, with the group instinct, are able to counter-balance the action of the individualistic instincts. This becomes more possible when environment and education have rendered the child less exacting and more self-dependent and have developed in him to some extent a sense of dignity.

This type would not be apparent in children under eight or nine years of age, not until the mind, the third factor presently to be considered, had become sufficiently developed to enable it to take the reins of conduct in hand.

*Example: In our school we have four boys and two girls, all of the same family. The eldest is nineteen years old and the youngest seven. These children are good representatives of the *active altruistic* type. They are all healthy. They have excellent home surroundings, and a good intelligent mother. All are

*These examples are given by Mlle. Hamaide, Dr. Decroly's collaborator.

gifted with observation, sound judgment and logic, though they find it hard to express themselves and have all had some difficulty in learning to read and write.

On the other hand they show to a remarkable degree the spirit of solidarity, they know how to adapt themselves to circumstances, to forget themselves for the good of the group. They never let themselves be wrongly influenced by their school-fellows. They are calm and ready to help, conscientious and sensitive and much loved by others.

When self-government was introduced, the scholars unanimously elected as their president the eldest of these girls who was 14 years old and the only girl in her class. All her brothers and sisters are captains of their groups, and, thanks to their good influence, self-government in this school has become a success. As these children are good organisers all the social activities of the school have been wholly entrusted to them.

Another combination of temperament and affectivity would give the **apathetic egoistic** type frequently represented by the delicate child who, through chronic physical weakness, is incapable of action and constantly needs the help of others. He is a thorough parasite. He shows no sign of sympathy and considers not at all the trouble he gives others.

The selfishness of these children is often reinforced by the medical prescriptions of doctors ignorant of existing or past educative influences. This selfishness then becomes extreme and much more painful to those around than that of the egoistic type.

These children may sometimes appear gentle and pliable, especially with persons whose moral superiority they feel; but, with those who are weaker than themselves, or injudicious in their love for them, they become naughty, cruel and despotic. They use the little strength they have to torment, tease, and worry those who tend and spoil them. They play little. They only imitate such occupations as need but a small expenditure of strength, and that only so long as their intelligence remains at the concrete stage.

EXAMPLE: Zélia is a Persian boy of 11 years 5 months. According to Binet his mental age is 8 years 10 months, and, according to Terman, 9 years 8 months. His height and weight are those of a child of 9. His teeth came very late. He has always needed special care as regards cleanliness and still wets his bed. He is difficult to please in the matter of food and eats very little.

His mind is growing duller and duller. He can sit for a long time doing nothing, just looking at the others or dreaming. During school hours he rarely shows any activity, though he sometimes gives signs of observation and association. He never makes any personal research or performs a task of his own free will.

Zélia has some memory and at times he even shows good judgment, but he cannot yet work alone. His tasks are done without care or thought, without interest or any wish to do better. At home he is the same; his mind remains inactive and he does nothing for himself.

He takes an interest in certain games only: in marbles, football, and cycling. He teases and worries his brother. He cries and screams for what he wants. Although he gets up early he has no time for breakfast, and comes late to school because he takes so long dressing. As he walks along the streets he will often stop for hours in front of a carriage. If he is sent on an errand he remains a long time away to play marbles with children he does not even know.

Influence of Mind

(C) In what way does this third factor intervene? Its influence is admitted by those who speak of intellectual curiosity, that is to say a curiosity as regards things not directly relating to immediate needs and fundamental instincts. This suggests a possible interest in activities that are more especially intellectual.

But what is important here is to show, when speaking of tendencies and instincts, that mind influences interests and is also

influenced by them. Mind does not only serve as a brake; it can also act as a positive stimulus. One cannot deny that thought when it becomes a belief, an opinion, a conviction, is a lever capable of replacing natural levers, such as innate tendencies, and can therefore counterbalance these. Mind can also change the first spontaneous direction of tendencies by diverting their energy into less instinctive activities.

Let us now see how mind can add to or modify the types.

Both active and passive types, when unintelligent as well as egoistic, keep their state of limitation, especially if they have not learned good habits. With them all educative work will be exterior and will end in automatism.

The **intelligent active egoistic type** will be able either to hide what he has understood to be a fault or to divert his egoism in such a way as to satisfy it without appearing to do so.

EXAMPLE: Youra, 9 years old, born in Russia during the war, is not very healthy. His mother has pulmonary tuberculosis and Youra has often suffered from inflammation of the lungs.

Tests show that Youra is mentally very superior to his age. His predominant interests are war, history (a question of power), movement (means of transport), change of place (geography). He has a great desire to be first, to be at the head, to give orders.

One day, as he was dreaming of the future, he let fall these words: "That will probably not happen now, but it will when I am an emperor or a king." Youra cannot stand losing a game, nor does he willingly submit to any rules that seem to him humiliating. He cannot bear to be surpassed. He tries to repulse, force, cheat. If he does not succeed he gives up the game.

At the beginning of the school year he was much upset by the arrival of two little boys who seemed strong and clever. Foreseeing a conflict, the teacher prudently spoke to him on the subject and received the following answer: "What do I care if they paint like artists or write as well as the best of authors so long as they are not stronger than I, so long as they submit to my will! Besides, if they try to rebel, I will assemble my army, fight and overthrow them." In his imagination Youra sees himself as chief commander of his little school-fellows who are his officers and privates.

Often Youra returns from school exhausted, excited and enervated with the effort he has made to keep his prestige by inventing something interesting. His cool, scornful manner with servants and the poor is most disconcerting. He is always looking for opportunities of giving orders, exacting services and playing the master. Periodically he becomes unbearable. He likes to wound people and cleverly finds out what is most disagreeable to each one. He is irritable and does the opposite to what he is asked to do. When he is told to stop doing something he does it over and over again and puts on a provoking air as if to attract attention. He is arrogant and cruel. When the crisis is over he acknowledges that he aimed at imposing his will, declaring that one day he will go the whole length and submit to nothing. "Papa would have to be far away and mamma ill in bed. I know that then, not wishing to disturb her, you would do nothing to me." Youra shows no feeling for his mother, who for five days has been ill with fever. She is delirious and her cough is most distressing to hear. After several sleepless nights she is in absolute need of rest. Youra has been told of this, but he is in no way sad or troubled. He does not ask after her health. On his return from school he makes a noise near his mother's door, then he goes into her room and gives her a cold cruel look as if to ask: "Well, what will follow now."

In spite of his intelligence, Youra makes no distinction between honesty and dishonesty, generosity and meanness. "Do thieves, to avoid being caught, sometimes manage to change the aspect of the objects they steal?" This question will certainly be followed by some planned act. The boy shows no pity, love or compassion. Lately someone was

reading to him a Russian book called *Childhood's Memories*, written by a son of Tolstoy's. The author was speaking of his love for an old servant, and of a feeling of adoration for his mother so deep that it seemed to oppress him, of his sensitiveness to family troubles. Youra opened wide his eyes and said: "What is that? I have never felt anything of the kind. I am not at all upset when people quarrel."

Youra has a great admiration for strength. To his mind, John the Terrible, and Peter the Great, are real kings for they understood power; they put to death or banished all who did not obey them. The other kings, the weaker ones, are worth nothing. When eight years old he asked: "Could not someone invent a shell which could destroy the whole of the enemy's army?" "Have you never thought of the fact that the enemy's army consists of men who are fathers, sons, husbands, brothers; that every cannon shot brings suffering and desolation?" "Ah! that cannot be helped! Such is war! One must win the victory!" "Why?" "So as to rule, be rich and impose one's will."

For some time the boy has shown a new interest; he writes stories. It flatters him to be named "great author" by the boys. It is true that he has much facility in expressing his ideas which at times are so numerous and strong that, according to him, his head is "ready to burst." Lately he had a hard trial to go through. He had felt sure of being elected captain, "being the strongest in body and will." The disappointment he received was a good lesson to him, for his school-fellows, instead of putting their trust in him, chose as their head the calmest and gentlest pupil in the class.

The **intelligent passive egoist** will use his intelligence to take advantage of the pity and kindness of others. He will be lazy but clever enough to get people to put up with his laziness and his parasitic ways.

The **intelligent active altruist,** all necessary conditions being present (including chance which should not be too ill-considered) may become the perfect type of being, capable of co-operative, brotherly action, of persevering continuous work for a high ideal. No child under 10 could show this type, and then only if no other factor had intervened to hinder development. The boy we are about to describe may become one of this intelligent, active, altruistic type.

EXAMPLE: Michel, who is 6½ years old, was born at Winnipeg, Canada. He cut his first tooth at 7½ months, walked at 12 months, is tall and very strong.

All his emotions are normal, his memory is good, his imagination average. He creates nothing, invents no story. His judgment and reasoning are advanced. He is very observant and logical. Though active, he perseveres only with what interests him. Except during periods of intense growth he rarely gives signs of fatigue. His chief interests relate especially to those he loves. He takes an extraordinary interest in animals and is fearless. When younger he had violent fits of temper. He is never sad except when someone hurts his feelings. He knows intense, exuberant joys but no jealousy. He is very sensitive and is exquisitely tender with his parents, also very affectionate with servants and with his playmates. He will not be led by his brothers and sisters. He is very compassionate, sincere, faithful, independent, obstinate, tenacious, enthusiastic, and exceptionally tender. He is ready to do anything for those who love and understand him.

Though, according to Binet's tests, Michel can be counted six years of age, he well represents the intelligent altruist. During the whole of the school year, without once missing, Michel came regularly to school an hour earlier than his school-fellows in order to prepare the class-room and see that all was in order. He never once forgot to bring food for the animals which he fed and cleaned every day during part of his play-time. All this was done spontaneously with no boasting nor seeking for praise. Once when he found that a rabbit's ears were warm, he became very anxious and said:

"I think the rabbit has a little fever." He showed the same devotion to all his school-fellows weaker than himself. The smaller girls especially received his services and affection, as also did I, his teacher. Michel, with his beautiful nature, was a great help to the class.

We have cast a rapid glance at the three elements which we consider the most important among those that determine a child's chief interests. These three elements are in the child himself, and are all three largely influenced by heredity. But it should not be forgotten that in spite of this fact their manifestation depends largely on suitable environment.

Sensory Motor Powers

Besides extrinsic influence certain intrinsic factors, though secondary, should be considered, for, under certain circumstances, these may play a highly important part. Such are the sensory motor powers which either help or hinder the manifestation of the child's interests.

EXAMPLE: A clumsy child, much interested in handling and making objects, breaks the tools or pieces he is using. If his interest is not remarkably strong and his reserve energy is small, if adults discourage him by laughing at him or scolding him, his interest will certainly disappear and will sometimes be replaced by an aversion or disgust for manual activity, which aversion may, with some children, last all through life.

The Rôle of Language

Language also may be either a hindrance or a help in the expression of certain interests. And, besides this, language itself is a source of interest. Some children have a real innate desire for speech and show very early a tendency to reflect on their language, making it their object of greatest interest. Those who learn how to express themselves in several languages early and easily, have their interest engaged in that way and become, if circumstances permit, writers, journalists, or teachers. But it may also happen that, in spite of their knowledge of grammar and their classical studies, they are and remain mere talkers. On the other hand the difficulties a child meets with in spoken or written language may lead him to seek superiority in directions other than that of the ordinary course of school studies. He may turn to sports, games, drawing or handicrafts. If some school activities not on the programme are organised, he may turn his energies in their direction. If he finds no such opportunities he will play pranks, become unruly and disgusted with school life. He may take a dislike to his master, render himself unbearable in class and end by being expelled.

Many children are backward in school, not because they are wanting in activity, affectivity or intelligence, nor because of sensory motor unfitness or insufficient knowledge of language, but because they cannot easily assimilate ideas verbally presented. Such children can only keep up with their class if their amour-propre is strong or they are much helped at home.

Conclusion

Interests and their liberation depend on a large number of factors, some of which belong to the child, others to past or present environment. These factors vary with constitution and temperament, predominant tendencies, habits and degree of intelligence; they are influenced by greater or lesser sensory motor fitness and by language. Here we will again repeat, as a warning to those who too rashly label a child's act or attitude, that the interest which is *apparent* is not always the true one, for the latter is often hidden by the action of certain daily influences that have the effect of neutralising even the most eager appetites.

In order to define an interest one should first know:—

(*a*) The state of constitution and health.

(*b*) If the child is temperamentally active or passive.

(*c*) If the child inclines more to egoism or to altruism (i.e., if active sympathy is stronger in him than egocentricity).

(*d*) If he is intelligent.

(*e*) If his senses and movements are good and well linked (especially the visual and manual).

(*f*) If his language is sufficiently mastered.

(*g*) If he has acquired helpful habits.

(*h*) If he has a good physical, mental and moral environment.

Each of these several points may be discerned with more or less precision, and it depends upon the degree of precision arrived at whether the discovery of the child's interests will be more or less easy and sure.

The evolution of interests, as so far established, is but a rough approximation, which may, however, serve as a guide and a help in organising to some extent an environment suitable to normal children of a certain age, but it may also lead to error in individual cases which are more numerous than one thinks. The only way is to organise an environment that suits many different stages of development at a time. This means *individualisation within the group*, so highly recommended by the New Education.

At school a child's best tendencies have free expansion only in an environment as natural as possible wherein a simple but real life can be led.

NOTES

Prof. Marcault's Tour

Prof. Marcault's visit to these Isles was a great success. He lectured in London, Leeds, Dundee, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, and everywhere was greeted by enthusiastic audiences. Among the chairmen who greeted him at his various lectures were Mr. Stewart Robertson, Director of Education for Dundee, Prof. McClelland, Prof. of Education at St. Andrew's, Dr. Wm. Boyd, Lecturer in Education, Glasgow University, Miss Fraser Lee, Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, and Dr. Maxwell Telling. We hope that Prof. Marcault will come again, for the wisdom, beauty and vision which he brings with him hearten us in our uphill task. We thank him for all that he brought to us—and promise him that his next visit will not be quite so strenuous!

Ligue pour l'Education Nouvelle

A New Education Fellowship Group has recently been formed in Brussels under the direction of Dr. Decroly. Will all our friends in Belgium who wish to be kept in touch with the work in Belgium please communicate with Dr. Decroly at rue de l'Ermitage 60, Brussels?

A New Education Fellowship Group in Leeds

It is hoped to form a New Education Fellowship Group in Leeds, to meet monthly for the discussion of educational ideas, including the New Psychology, and of how they may be put into practice at home and in school. Any local subscriber to the *New Era* may become a member. The Secretary is Mrs. L. J. Bendit, 3, Queen Square, Leeds, England.

La Nuova Era

We welcome our sister magazine in Italy. The first number, January, 1926, contains articles by Dr. Ferrière, Mr. O. F. Neill, Dr. Arundale and Prof. Marcault. The editors are Pro.Rag.Arcara Gaetano and Prof. sa Russo Giovanna Direttrice Didattica, the address, Casella Postale 75, Palermo, the subscription 10 lira (Abroad, 20 lira) per annum.

The New Education in Scotland

A special number of the *New Era*.

We are planning to devote our October number to experiments in the New Education in Scotland. Will anyone who wishes to contribute to this number please communicate with the Editor at once?

Character Development in Education

We note with interest that a periodical, *Citizenship Through Character Development*, has been founded by Dr. J. E. Burke, Superintendent of Schools in Boston, and a special Committee. Dr. Burke has always been greatly interested in the problem of character development through education, and his Committee have worked out a course of study to be used as a guide in the work. The Editor of the new periodical is Joseph B. Egan, Principal of the Harvard School, Charlestown, New England, U.S.A., to whom communications may be addressed.

The Prevention of Delinquency

It is interesting to note that the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, 40, East Forty-second Street, New York City, is conducting demonstration child guidance clinics in Philadelphia and Cleveland. At these clinics children who are "proving too much for the adults responsible for them" are systematically examined physically, psychologically and psychiatrically, and are helped by trained and sympathetic welfare workers to adjust themselves to happier and more normal ways.

Moral Education Congress

An International Moral Education Congress will be held in Rome under the auspices of the Italian Government from April 16—20. There will be four principal lectures: two on "Development of Personality," by M. Belot, Inspector of Schools, Paris, and Professor F. Adler, leader of the Ethical Movement in the States, and two on "A Universal Moral Code," by M. A. Yusuf Ali, of Lahore, and Professor F. Orestano. The office of the Congress is at Via Brenta No. 2, Rome (34). The Italian Government will reduce the railway fare to and from the Italian frontier by 30 per cent. for those attending.

Central Association for Mental Welfare

A special nine-weeks' course for teachers of dull, backward and mentally defective children will be held by the Central Association for Mental Welfare from May 3 to July 3, 1926. Lectures will be given and classes held on the medical aspects of mental deficiency, the legal and social aspects of work for defectives, normal and abnormal psychology, special schools and methods, individual work, the use of educational apparatus, etc. A preliminary prospectus may be had from the Association, 24, Buckingham Palace Road, London S.W. 1, Eng.

The Youth Movement

The British Federation of Youth is an organisation formed a few months ago to work for international peace. The objects of the Federation are to co-ordinate British Youth, to collect and disseminate information concerning all Youth Movements, and to co-operate in the formation of a World Federation of Youth to work for peace through mutual understanding. The Federation is closely associated with similar organisations in America and in Europe, and it is proposed to hold a World Congress of Youth in the summer of 1928. The Secretary to the British Federation is Miss Margaret Porteous, and the address is 421, Sentinel House, Southampton Row, London, W.C. 1, Eng.

From Germany we receive news of the Weltjugendliga, an organisation the same as our British Federation of Youth. An important part of the work of the Liga is the publication in Germany of news and articles of a pacific character taken from American, English, and French papers. During last year some hundred and fifty German papers and magazines were regularly supplied with translations of this kind. About 60 foreign papers are regularly supplied to

the Liga for distribution among its members and friends, and there is a considerable exchange of letters between schools in Germany and in the States.

The Kibbo Kift

Any reader of the *New Era* who does not yet know of this Kindred should write to the Chief Scribe, Kibbo Kift Kindred, 79, The Grove, Wandsworth, London, S.W. 18, Eng., for particulars of it, especially if he or she has anything to do with the poor town child. The Kindred endeavour to counteract the ills of industrialism and over-crowding by establishing woodcraft groups, camp and open-air schools, holiday camps, local camping grounds, land reservations, and open spaces for camp training and nature craft; by helping to re-organise industry efficiently on a non-competitive basis and to secure healthy conditions of work; by endeavouring to bring about an international educational policy, international freedom of trade, an international currency system, the abolition of secret treaties, the establishment of a World Council, etc. Men, women and children may belong to the Kindred, whose recreational activities take the form of camping, hiking and woodcraft. The element of definite training is always very closely allied to the recreational aspect. The Advisory Council includes personalities like Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, Dr. Grenfell, Maurice Maeterlink, and Professor J. Arthur Thomson.

Cinemas for Children

We hear of an excellent idea from New York, that of a Saturday Morning Motion Picture (Samopic) Club which, under the direction of Mrs. E. B. Heymann, provides entertainments during the winter for children and young people. The programmes are carefully selected by a review committee and are exhibited in a large, well-ventilated theatre; they include such pictures as *Peter Pan*, *The Wizard of Oz*, and *The Pony Express*. Enquiries concerning the club may be made of Mrs. Heymann, Plaza Theatre, 59th Street, at Madison Avenue, New York.

Those schools in England which are able to give cinema performances to their pupils will be glad to know where really good and suitable films may be had. The British Instructional Films Ltd., Regent Studio, Park Road, Surbiton, Surrey, Eng., are trying the experiment of producing ten-minute films, both instructive and amusing, for use in school. The work of the company is necessarily restricted, as so far there is not very much demand for films for schools, but as these become better known the company hope to be able to produce cheaply any kind of film asked for. A travelling cinema packed in a suit case can be sent to any school for three days at a time; if three schools within easy distance of each other could club together and exhibit the films in turn, the cost would be inconsiderable. The list of films ready now includes Secrets of Nature (*The Cuckoo's Secret*, *Fathoms Deep Beneath the Sea*, *Story of Peter the Raven*, *The Stream*, *The Swallow*, etc.); films edited by the Marine Biological Association, the Zoological Society, H.M. Office of Works, Professor Maxwell Lefroy; the Empire Series of films (Cotton Growing in Nigeria, Hong Kong, Fiji Islands; Lumbering in Northern Ontario, etc.).

A French Appreciation

Under the title of *Le Mouvement anglais des "New Schools,"* M. Manuel Devaldès has published in *Le Mercure* a very interesting résumé of the work being done in England by schools following the new ideals in education. This monograph may be consulted in the *New Era* Lending Library.

The Montessori Method in Ireland

Waterford has now entered upon its seventh year of work. Miss Nettell and her school of 35 children moved in January into the Newtown School, under the management of the Friends' Committee. Here she and her sister have ideal conditions and surroundings for the

first *New Era* School in Ireland. Montessori has also been begun in Dublin in the Misses Wilson's school at Nightingale Hall, Clyde Road. It is most encouraging to hear that in the midst of all the trouble in Ireland educational pioneers have been quietly at work, doing what they can for the children of the new age.

Montessori Preparatory Training Course

The Montessori Preparatory Training Course under the direction of Mr. Claude A. Claremont, B.Sc., which was transferred from Letchworth to Hampstead last September, has now settled into its new quarters in a beautiful old house in Rosslyn Hill. There are vacancies for students both for the full two years' preparatory course (Dr. Montessori's training course is taken during the two years), and also for students following part-time courses in special subjects. Beginners' classes in Montessori, open to the general public, are held on Saturday mornings, parents being especially welcome. A Montessori Summer School is in contemplation for early August of this year. The address is Studio House, Rosslyn Hill, Hampstead, London, N.W.3

Auto-Education

Teachers should be particularly interested in Dr. Jessie White's "A B C of Language Teaching," advertised under the heading of an Auto-Education Guide. It describes the adaptation to English of the Montessori method of teaching language. It is based on a careful study of the phonetics of English, and Dr. White manufactures the movable letters required. These are very beautiful as well as sound scientifically. Dr. White is always pleased to spare a few minutes for visitors who find their way to her Auto-Education Institute near the British Museum. Here every Tuesday and Wednesday she lectures to teachers desirous of learning how to introduce effectively the essentials of the Montessori Method into their schools.

"The new thing that the new mind reckons precious, is an accurst thing to the soul of custom."

Book Reviews

Bible Stories Retold for Children. By ELEANOR CROSBY KEMP. (The Adelphi Company, 10, East 43rd Street, New York, $2.50. London : Curtis Brown, Ltd.)

It is very difficult in re-telling Bible stories for children to make the characters real and living, so stereotyped has the usual treatment become. Dr. Kemp has admirably overcome this difficulty. All her stories start with the babyhood or childhood of the men and women of whom she writes; their characters are simply told in modern language : we learn that " Cain was an impatient, surly boy," that Abel was " of a happy, merry disposition"; that Esau was " large and strong . . . Jacob, on the other hand, was a slight, nervous child, ever anxious to do his duty." The stories lead on from one to the other, from the boy and girl Adam and Eve to Moses, the soldier and man of God, so naturally that all the generations of Israel seem to pass before us in seven short and simple tales. The language is nearly always simple; there are one or two lapses into a more grown-up style, but the general pictures drawn for us are of human children and human men and women whom children can understand. Several extra little tit-bits of information such as children like to know are introduced : how many of us know for instance why Abraham's and Sarah's names were changed from Abram and Sarai? In the preface Dr. Kemp says that she has told these stories for many years to many children all over the world. They run as easily and brightly as an oft-told tale, with understanding of what children want in a story, perhaps especially in a Bible story. The most sensitive child need not shrink from any of these stories as told here; the disobedient or misguided one is always given the benefit of the doubt, and the harshness and unkindness are much softened. Mothers and teachers will be grateful for these well-told tales.

The Menace of Nationalism in Education. By JONATHAN FRENCH SCOTT, Ph.D. (George Allen. 6s. 6d.)

Dr. Scott has made a praiseworthy attempt to investigate the problem of nationalistic education; his book should be in the hands of all educationists who believe that our only hope of permanent peace lies with those who are as yet in the schoolrooms of the world.

Dr. Scott claims that education to-day is one of the most persistent and insidious enemies of world peace. He proves this allegation by a careful examination and criticism of the text books now in use in France, Germany and England. This impartial investigation is particularly illuminating to teachers of history, who must agree with Dr. Scott that there is something vitally wrong with the historical profession, when the causes of war can be interpreted so differently in different countries—not only the causes of the Great War, but those "far removed from the heat of present passion." The author again points out the irony of the fact that while "statesmen and jurists at Geneva are exercising their highest intelligence in smoothing the path to a new world order, writers of text books and teachers are training the world's children to nationalistic narrowness."

The call has now come to defend historical truth, tolerance and an international attitude against the attacks of nationalistic dogma and mistaken patriotism. The school-fostered dogma must go before we can hope to see the children of Europe taking their stand as broad-minded, internationally-thinking men and women who will see to it that world peace is secured. D.H.

The Seeking Teacher—The Working Child.. (Der Suchende Lehrer—Das Schaffende Kind).

This is the suggestive title of a manual published by the organisers of an educational exhibition held at Leipzig at Easter, 1925, for the purpose of furthering the realisation of the real objective of education : the freeing of creative faculty. The exhibition, therefore, was not merely a collection of individual achievements intended to dazzle the onlooker. Attention was rather centred upon the lavish use of imagination by both teachers and children thus able to find a creative approach to many branches of knowledge, and to see in every passing interest and chance happening an open sesame to manifold activities. Through each of these the children are led to attack and gradually to conquer some portion of the territory formerly belonging to one or other of the many watertight subjects of which education used to consist. This mingling of various branches of knowledge not only sharpens the children's wits and makes use of their natural adaptability, but also requires of the teachers elasticity of method and close co-operation.

Children are naturally eager to find out all about many things; under the old régime of subjects and time-tables this desire was seldom satisfied. At Leipzig, however, no limitations of time or subject are imposed. Education encourages investigation and follows the child's natural interests, furthering concentration over a gradually widening field. For instance, the book describes how over a period of four or five weeks the interest of a class of girls of 11 centred round railways. During this time many different subjects, from history to geology, from geography to mathematics, were pursued more or less intensively. It is easy to see how alive the children would be to calculations of distance, time taken by trains and price of tickets when they themselves were busy making not only a train, railway station, lines and signal-box, but also time-tables, tickets and the many other things connected with travel. At the same time the reading of poems and stories, and the frequent use of pencil and pen, kept the imagination active. It is interesting to note that when the same topic absorbed a class of boys of the same age, they seized upon mechanical and technical questions disregarded by the girls. Again, a class of girls learning domestic economy spent a long time over chemical experiments which must have given them a clearer understanding of the properties and use of various foodstuffs than they could have acquired from

cookery alone. In a class of boys of 13 a newspaper cutting about Trotsky led to investigations into the history and geography of Russia, and to the making of a Russian village as true to type as pictures and imagination could make it.

These examples suffice to show some of the methods adopted in class teaching. At other times the class is divided into groups of four, each of which works separately until given problems have been solved, when they all again unite. None of the methods claims to be more than a compromise between an ideal solution of educational problems and one at present attainable. To help teachers to a better understanding of children photographic studies are made of their movements, postures, facial expressions, etc., at work and at play. When considered in relation to the circumstances of the moment, a series of these snapshots furnish useful clues to character. The book abounds in sidelights upon the psychology of the child. For instance, the first thought of a class of little ones in learning some new form of creative activity was: "Make it for mother!" But a class of 13-year-olds did not want their parents' presence at a performance they were getting up, as they were doing it for their own amusement and not the criticism or admiration of their elders. Every form of creative activity is considered from the standpoint of the child; the teacher is reminded that expression, not performance, is its first object. The writers therefore recommend that children should be left to compose, stage and act their own plays, whether they be the product of collective or individual authorship. The result will be that the child's natural faculties of self-expression will be strengthened and stimulated by suitable employment. Many examples are given of children's ingenuity in devising and arranging functions of various kinds, from a Christmas Fair, at which every child in a large school was both producer and purchaser, to Summer and Autumn Festivals arranged by individual classes or groups. In some of these the parents co-operated, although usually the children themselves bore the brunt of their undertakings, helped by the teachers when necessary.

One chapter is devoted to the problem of schoolrooms. All the suggestions aim at greater freedom of movement, and at minimising the closeness of contact so dangerous to physical, mental and psychological health. As one writer says—(the manual is compiled by over 40 teachers): "So many children suffer from cramped conditions that it is important that at school they should be able to expand, move about and use their energy freely in suitable ways, without either interfering with the pursuits of others or being themselves in danger of interference."

D.E.H.

Our Editor will take an Exhibition, including lantern slides of work by Prof. Rainer's pupils and many exhibits from Herr Günther's pupils, to the States during her lecture tour there in March and April (in charge of Miss Hartman, 10, Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.). When she returns an Exhibition will be arranged in London. Notices will be sent to all *New Era* subscribers but other readers should notify the *New Era* office if they wish to receive notices of the Exhibition.

Our Editor will lecture in Philadelphia (24th—30th March), New York (March—13th April), Cleveland (14th—17th April), Chicago (17th—24th April), Washington (25th—28th April), Boston (29th April—8th May).

(11 year old group)

Rosemary Junior School, Greenwich, Conn.

SCENE FOR A GREEK HARVEST FESTIVAL

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The Outlook Tower

In this Quarter's Editorial I want to set down the chief impressions gained in the six crowded weeks which I spent recently in the U.S.A.—weeks brimful of experiences and contacts, of lectures given in colleges, schools, clubs, of visits to schools, of meetings with stimulating personalities known so well by name and by the fame of their work but never before met in the flesh. Everywhere I received that friendliness, that warm-hearted welcome so characteristic of the generous American temperament.

New York

I cannot forego, at the outset, a word of admiration for the fascination of New York—a city of avenues and unending vistas, edged about by a peculiarly attractive architecture. At night the brilliant lights of the streets and the shadowy forms of the sky-scrapers, rising like great pyramids in the dusk, produce an effect never to be forgotten.

Spaces and Races

My first impression was of vastness, of tremendous distances to be travelled, of great problems to be solved, of huge numbers to be organised—a country grappling with the problem of blending its heterogeneous crowds into a homogeneous people. My second impression was of the adaptability and dynamic energy of a people ever ready to scrap the old in order to build the new. These two impressions were constantly re-inforced as I found them reflected in the educational world.

Free education, through the elementary school, high school and college, has been promised to all, and educators are confronted everywhere with the task of dealing with large numbers of pupils of widely differing traditions and heredity.

The Nursery Schools

The study of the pre-school child is progressing rapidly and many nursery schools have been established, especially in large cities. These schools are often founded by wealthy parents who have realised the importance of the early years of child life and wish to have their children in the care of experts. The work of Dr. Patty Hill, Director of the Teachers College Nursery School, has largely influenced the development of nursery schools throughout the country. At one such school which I visited the children attend from 8.30 a.m. to 3 p.m. A trained nurse examines them each day; they are also under the observation of a doctor. There is a high degree of co-operation with the parents in the preparation of very detailed records of each child's physical, mental and social development. The parents report daily such items as the time the children went to bed the previous night, how they slept, etc. Elaborate records are kept by the teachers. For instance, the Voorhees Pupil Progress Record (Beaver Country Day School) for the kindergarten children is a good example of the extent to which analytical recording is being carried in the States. There are four general headings:—**Social Relationships, Interest, Health, Reaction to Physical Stimuli** and **Reaction to Special Stimuli** (such as Music, Stories, Dramatic Play, Nature, Art, Constructive Materials). These general headings are sub-divided. For example, under the heading **Interest** appear the sub-divisions:—Initial Response, Duration (Persistent, Erratic, Rhythmic), Play Interest (Individual, Group), Problem (Success, Perseverance). A very successful series of record sheets for the kindergarten has been prepared by Teachers College, New York, and can be obtained by anyone interested.

Diet is considered of extreme importance and all meals are planned by a dietitian. The nurseries are charmingly furnished, colour schemes are carefully chosen and a wealth of material is provided in the form of large bricks, with which all kinds of things can be made, aquariums, water with which to wash doll's clothes or to sail boats, clay, paint, sand, etc.

Detroit in particular has won fame for the excellency of its nursery schools. In California the day nurseries are provided by public funds but in most of the other States they are privately financed. At Downer's Grove Free Kindergarten I saw some work along the best modern lines.

The Montessori Movement

The Montessori Method is not greatly used, social methods of teaching in the early years receiving greater favour at present than individual methods. The strongest Montessori centre is directed by Miss A. E. McLin, Director of the Children's Foundation, New York. Miss McLin has organised a charming Montessori school in which the conditions are so good that an eminent Behaviorist has decided to send his own children to it! The Children's Foundation has organised nursery schools in the poorer parts of New York and elsewhere and does much good work in propagating Montessori ideals throughout the States.

Changes in Education

Education is moving ahead rapidly and many new methods are being evolved. The best known are the Project Method, the Dalton Plan, the Winnetka Technique, the Gary and Platoon Plans. If, however, one analyses the changes, one finds that there is something at work which is far deeper than any plan or method of presenting information to children. There is a changing attitude towards the whole meaning of education. The New Education is based on a definite philosophy and is rapidly becoming a science. The most profound influence behind all these efforts has been the philosophy of John Dewey.

The Project Method

This philosophy as interpreted by Prof. Kilpatrick has originated the idea of synthetic education as exemplified in the Project. All school subjects are seen as related and interdependent. Presented as a living whole these subjects come to the child as part of his daily experience; they become an extension of his home life.

The Method is based on the principle that the " child is the starting point, the centre and the end. . . . . To the growth of the child all studies are subservient. . . . . To possess all the world of knowledge and lose one's self is as awful a fate in education as in religion."

In most of the newer schools, and in a great many of the primary grades of the State schools, education is intimately related to the child's innate interests by means of the Project. The Project may be any subject which is naturally interesting to young people; it forms the centre around which many forms of enquiry develop. For instance, the Project may be radio, the bank, boats, a tram car, how buckets are made, etc. The " tool " subjects are presented as incidents of the Project; the three R's are acquired as the children work through it. In some schools the Projects are more or less planned by the teachers so as to provide a consecutive time-table, but in other schools it is thought that the particular interest of the children should indicate the Projects to be explored. For instance, in the former type of school the teacher would definitely take, say, the life of Red Indians as the Project for one session, Desert life for another session, Greek and Roman life for another, and so on. During each of these sessions the children re-live as realistically as possible the life of the people being studied. A wigwam is built in the classroom, the dresses, household utensils and means of transport of the Red Indians are reproduced. Available books on the subject of Indian life are studied, essays and poems written, pictures painted and a thorough investigation made into the lives of that ancient people. In the midst of these very real

activities, simple arithmetic, reading and writing are seen by the child to be necessities and he willingly conquers these processes in order to achieve his own special contribution to the group's Project.

The children work in groups; they remain in their own classroom with their class teacher who is able to study each child very closely and render individual help. If a specialist teacher, such as the art teacher, is wanted to assist in a Project, she visits the classroom. Subjects are no longer arranged on a time-table around the central point of possible future examinations. The focal point of the Project is the child's own life and interests.

In the schools which derive the Projects from the children themselves, a simple question, say, a journey, provides the basis of the Project. Let us say the children plan a journey round the world. They draw, paint and model ships in addition to bringing illustrations from home. A ship is stocked with merchandise and as it sails from country to country on a big map drawn on the classroom floor, the freight is sold and new freight bought so that when it arrives home it is stocked with new goods. This means a study of countries, their products and arts. Descriptive letters are sent home from the various ports. All this involves much practice in writing, reading and arithmetic.

A public school class in one of the large cities spent several months investigating the milk supply of the city. It enquired into the problems of production and delivery, of costs, profits and other arithmetical details; it looked into the question of sanitation and learned much of the local geography. The English language, both written and spoken, was much practised.* Another class of seven-year-old children spent a whole term studying different methods of transport, both ancient and modern. This provided scope for a good deal of research work and study of history and geography, reading, writing, handwork and practical arithmetic.

With children the play element is also the educational element. There is, therefore, nothing haphazard in all the various practical activities involved in a project. The " tool " subjects are being systematically acquired all the time. By the use of standardised tests the teacher is able to keep an accurate record of each pupil's progress. The tests reveal difficulties, or gaps in skill, and to these the teacher gives special attention, supplying additional practice work to strengthen the weak points.

The Project is a synthesising influence and brings the usual school subjects into vital relationship with the child's everyday experiences out of school hours. It is also a strong factor in developing the social virtues and training children to co-operate and compromise with their fellows to a degree that most adults of to-day could envy. Certain Projects—the study of the lives of primitive peoples—have a special psychological value in that they enable the child to re-live the early life of the race and satisfy a deep psychological need arising from the fact that the child recapitulates in his own growth the stages in the development of the race.

It is interesting to note that experiments carried out by Prof. Collings in the junior high school of Oklahoma showed that the children using the Project Method not only acquired proficiency in the three R's but revealed a higher intelligence quotient than pupils in the ordinary schools.†

The weakness of the Method, as is well recognised by its advocates, lies in the tremendous responsibility placed upon the teacher. In the hands of one not born a teacher the Method would soon become lax and chaotic and the children's development would easily become one-sided. The Method entails constant supervision on the part of the teacher to ascertain if each child is acquiring proficiency in the tool subjects, and to ensure

* See *Education Moves Ahead*, by Eugene Randolph Smith.

† Further descriptions of " Projects " appear in *Progressive Education*, Vols. 1 and 2.

that no important piece of fundamental technique has been left out of the child's equipment. In the hands of real teachers, however, the Method has already proved a great success.

The Dalton Plan

The Dalton Plan, initiated by Miss Parkhurst, is so well known that it needs little description. Under the Plan ordinary classroom methods are abolished and the pupils are given mimeographed assignment sheets showing work to be done in a month. As soon as one assignment is completed the pupil proceeds to the next. He is allowed to work at his own pace and in his own way. A portion of each day is set aside during which the class adviser can be consulted on problems and difficulties connected with the organisation of the day's work. The classrooms are turned into workshops or "laboratories," each equipped for a special subject and the children move about freely from one room to another—working alone or in conjunction with their companions. Each subject has its own specialist who may be consulted by the children. From time to time conferences to deal with new material are called by the specialist teachers, and the children who have reached the stage needing that material attend the conferences.

There is a significant social aspect to Miss Parkhurst's vision of what the Dalton Plan should do for the children. She writes: "There is a misunderstanding and lack of experience everywhere. The industrial labourer threatens, then strikes, refusing to work; the pupil labourer shirks, then rebels and refuses to learn, not because the tasks are too difficult or would in themselves be unpleasant, if the worker could attempt them in his own way; both sets of labourers refuse because the *conditions under which they work* impede the powers which would permit them to release and give expression to that *inner urge* which is necessary for the motivation of every task. . . . a *complete job* challenges the *whole boy or girl*, so that we suggest that the curriculum, whatever the content, shall be given in the form of a job; that this job and its conditions and purposes be clearly outlined, and that the *pupil* himself be permitted to plan for it."

At Miss Parkhurst's school, The Children's University, N.Y.C., the Plan is very fully carried out. Even in Grade I and II (children of 6 and 7) a Sub-Dalton Plan is used and the children are gradually trained to plan their own work. At the Children's University there are 117 fee paying pupils. The High School section is in a separate house. Miss Parkhurst is waiting for the juniors, who have experienced the Dalton Plan from the beginning, to pass into the High School before she can complete her experiment.

The Winnetka Technique

Winnetka is a suburb of Chicago on the shores of Lake Michigan with a population of 10,000. It is known for its strong community spirit and the interest of its people in the schools. The people of Winnetka have elected very progressive men and women to their board of education and in May, 1919, the Board invited Carleton W. Washburne to be superintendent of the Winnetka schools with the purpose of making them modern and progressive. Superintendent Washburne has initiated a system of education which has aroused world-wide interest. The aim of the system is to modify the curriculum in order to make a greater adaptation to the individual than is customary and to provide more time for socialised and self-expressive activities. The curriculum of the Winnetka schools is divided into two parts, (*a*) "the common essentials which are supposed to include those knowledges and skills which will be used by practically everyone." Everyone should know how to read, to spell, to write, to make simple arithmetical computations, and possess a certain general knowledge concerning men and things. (*b*) "The group and creative activities which include those things in which the results achieved by the children may legitimately differ"—such as appreciation of literature, music, art. Half the day is spent on the common essentials,

the other half on self-expressive activities. Work on the common essentials is individual, the children being provided with a series of practice books and tests * which have been devised by the psychologist and staff after repeated experiment and revision. Such practice books have been prepared for the elementary grades in arithmetic, for several grades in languages and for history and geography.

For instance, "a child who is ready to begin fractions is given a fraction practice book. This book is self-instructive. In using it, the child requires a minimum of help from teacher or classmates. Only one step is taken at a time and much practice is provided for that step before proceeding to the next. In learning to add factions, there are some nineteen steps, beginning with the simple operation of cutting out cardboard circles, cutting these in two and labelling each piece $\frac{1}{2}$, and ending with a miscellaneous exercise which includes every practical difficulty in adding fractions."† The child can test himself by means of an answer sheet provided. When he thinks he is ready for the next step he goes to the teacher for a final test, for no one is allowed to proceed to a new stage until the previous one has been mastered. The results of this method have been shown to save one or two hours daily of the time devoted to the tool subjects.

The general technique upon which the practice books and the consequent individual work are built consists of "(*a*) breaking up the common essentials curriculum into very definite units of achievement, (*b*) using complete diagnostic tests to determine whether a child has mastered each of these units, and if not just where his difficulties lie, (*c*) and the full use of self-instructive, self-corrective practice materials."

During the group and self-expressive activities no standards or tests are set. The activities are largely ends in themselves and grow out of the children's interests. The Projects in the Winnetka schools differ from the "Project Method" in that they are not a means of definite instruction. No effort is made to include in a project any of the tool subjects or other special subject matter. For example, if the children plan to produce a newspaper they do it because they enjoy it not because they must learn through it how to spell and punctuate, these items having been mastered in the "common essentials" period.

Self-government is very well organised in the Winnetka schools and assemblies presided over by the children are planned on the parliamentary model. There are also many school committees in charge of various departments.

The elaborate and careful work that has gone to the building up of the Winnetka technique has been possible because Miss Mabel Vogel, a psychologist, and several assistants co-operate with the staff in the experimental work. There is a continual examination of the curriculum and its subject matter and several hundreds of schools are assisting.

The Winnetka experiment is an attempt to combine individual with group work and to reduce to the minimum the time required to obtain proficiency in the tool subjects. At these essential subjects all the children must work, and nothing is left to chance, but they may work at their own rate. In the other subjects the children may work individually or in groups as they please. Because of the scientific way in which the tool subjects are attacked the time spent on them has been much reduced, thus leaving more time for creative and self-expressive activities than in other schools.

Intelligence Tests

Mental tests are very widely used in the grading of school children. They are generally an extension of the Binet-Simon tests originated in France but adapted and popularised by Prof. E. L. Thorndike and others. Tests reveal mental age. The ratio of the mental age to the chronological age expressed as

* These books can be obtained from Supt. C. W. Washburne, Skokie Sch., Winnetka, Ill., U.S.A.

† *Our Enemy the Child*, by Agnes de Lima. New Republic Inc., N.Y. City.

a percentage is the intelligence quotient. For example, if a child of fourteen has a mental age of seven he is said to have a 50 I.Q. Most teachers agree that these tests are of real value and often enable them to assist a child more fully than would otherwise be possible. Many of the pioneer teachers consider that intelligence tests are particularly useful in experimental schools for they check the standard of achievement reached and make it possible to compare results with ordinary schools. Statistics obtained in this way are likely to assist the new education movement by proving that under the new conditions a child is able to progress more rapidly than under the old. But it is realised by most that it is not sufficient to test a child's physical and mental powers. In the new schools the pupils' creative abilities and character development are always cherished more than the mere mental qualities.

Art

Art is beginning to take a new place in the school. It is no longer relegated to one part of the time-table and confined to one "art room"; it is becoming more and more a "tool" subject entering into all school work. In history, for instance, scenes from the past are painted, carved in wood or moulded in soap. In geography the "map beautiful" is taking its place.* Maps are delicately coloured and reveal in an original way the flora, fauna, minerals, etc., of a country or district.

Many of the new schools have a workshop attached to each classroom where a plentiful supply of tools, paints, clay, etc., are always available. Art, that most individual expression of man's genius, is proving successful as a *group* subject. The frontispiece illustration, *Scene for a Greek Harvest Festival*, was the outcome of a history project undertaken by a class averaging eleven years of age. Myth and legend were studied, parts of the Odyssey were read, some of the scenes of ancient Greek life were acted. Finally a harvest festival to Dionysus was presented to the whole school with dances, music, choruses, much in the way the early Greeks would have celebrated their festival. The illustration shows a Greek farm in plasticene, with hills and plains that lead to the sea, with figures and animals in clay. Each child contributed something to the model. The group criticised, putting doubtful points to the vote, removing items and replacing others until gradually the whole picture evolved and was voted satisfactory.

At the Keith Country Day School the art studio is a large light room at the top of the house. The equipment is simple—long tables, laundry tubs, a sewing machine, vessels for dyeing, all kinds of tools, clay, plaster, paints of all kinds and brushes. At one end of the room is a small stage fitted with spot lights for testing light effects. The children visit the studio when they feel inclined. Classes of about twelve pupils at a time are held in the studio. After a preliminary discussion with the art teacher the pupils start their individual pieces of work, work chosen freely by themselves. Some of the titles of the paintings I saw reveal their originality: "Disappearance," "Paganism," "Coming from Sunshine into Shadow."

From the beginning self-expression is cultivated in art, poetry, language, music, sculpture, and pottery, and, as a result, children from 6 to 12 in progressive schools impressed me as being remarkably articulate.

Co-education

As the American parent does not favour boarding schools many of the progressive schools are in the centres of large cities. In Europe the new schools are generally found in close contact with Nature, beautiful natural surroundings being considered an important influence in the life of youth.

The City and Country Day School movement has done much to overcome the

* See *Progressive Education Magazine*, April, 1926.

limitations of town environment by placing schools on the outskirts of cities and conveying children to and fro by motor 'buses, the children remaining at school the whole day.

In American towns where home life, for the majority, is confined to small flats, there is a tendency for youth to enter early into the diversions of town life. The young people mature early and most of them from 15 to 18 partake fully of the experiences, pleasures and dissipations of town life with its continuous round of parties, auto trips, cinemas, etc. Because of these numerous subsidiary interests they are not able to concentrate their energies on school work in the way in which this is possible in a boarding school or in Europe where, in the majority of homes, the traditions of the past still hold and the young are restrained from much participation in social activities until their studies are completed. Under these conditions co-education is not entirely successful, especially in the Eastern States, and there are very few co-educational boarding schools.

The Lincoln School of Teachers College,
New York City

This school, fully described in an article in this number, is probably doing more scientific experimental work than any other school in the world. Most of the conditions favourable to experiment have been secured—the parents of the children co-operate with the staff and the Director, Dr. Otis Caldwell, has gathered around him a staff eager to experiment and undertake scientific observation.

"The school was established because of a conviction that critical and experimental methods used with pupils in school might result in improved education." The curriculum has been subjected to severe testing with a view to bringing it closer to the actual needs of the pupils and more in touch with social life. "The aim is to construct a fundamental curriculum which will represent the important activities, interests, and possibilities of modern life, and which will be so arranged as to provide opportunity for each individual to secure as good development as his capacities make possible." The results of the school experiments are issued in pamphlet form and may be had on application to the Lincoln School. A list appears on page 111. But the school is more than a centre of experimentation, it is a community of staff, children and parents co-operating in the common adventure of increasing the beauty and value of human life. All who are seriously interested in education should keep in touch with the work of the Lincoln School.

One of my visits was paid on the day after there had been an exhibition of work for parents, and the corridors were filled with interesting and original art and craft work of all kinds. The atmosphere of busy, active freedom convinced me that this was no mere experiment but a vital centre in which young people were growing to the full.

In the large music room I found all kinds of musical instruments made by the children themselves. Experiments in "creative music" were being tried and I watched a music lesson in which the teacher was drawing original tunes from children of 7 and 8 years because they had begun to understand rhythm, by practising it in walking, marching, skipping. Music is not treated as an isolated subject, it is correlated with history, handwork, science and art. Into music lessons are brought:

(*a*) Manual Training—in the making of instruments.
(*b*) Fine Arts—in the form and decoration of instruments made.
(*c*) Vocal Music—in learning songs to be played upon instruments.
(*d*) Dancing—in cultivation of the sense of rhythm.
(*e*) Science—the physics of sound involved in making the instruments and the nature of the materials used.
(*f*) Nature Study—birds whose songs are studied.

(*g*) Mythology—legends of early instruments.
(*h*) Ethnology—in the study of instruments and customs of primitive peoples.
(*i*) English—in presenting accounts of work done.

The Beaver Country Day School,
Brookline, Mass.

The Beaver Country Day School is a beautiful building on the outskirts of Boston, receiving 300 children. Unfortunately, owing to prejudice against co-education, the boys are removed after fourteen years of age, but the Principal is hoping to take a step in the direction of true co-education later on.

A special feature of this school is the complete record which is kept of the pupil's mental, emotional and physical growth. Charts are prepared which show each pupil's progress in the tool subjects and the results of intelligence testing. Here again on every side I saw evidence of creative work. In one room the children were writing original poems which were to be illustrated and bound together as the work of the class; in another I saw the result of some group work on Cicero's Orations. The children had appointed a committee which assigned different portions of the Orations to individuals to be put into their own language in a form suitable for oratory. The complete result was to be mounted and delivered to the whole school. Even French verbs and Latin idioms were illustrated! In another room a map of S. America was being drawn as group work by children of 11 years. The flora, fauna, minerals, coats of arms of different nationalities, etc., were painted in a most original way.

In all these schools morning Assembly (which is not religious in character as in England) is used partly as a means of education. Each group in the school is responsible in turn for presenting the results of its work to the assembly. Sometimes in three minute speeches each child of a group will deal with a particular phase of a subject; at another time the subject matter will be presented in dramatic form.

The Francis W. Parker School, Chicago

"Character, constantly realizing itself in practical citizenship, in community life, in complete living, is the immediate, everlasting, and only purpose of the school." In such words Colonel Francis W. Parker, the inspirer and founder of the school, and one of the early pioneers in new methods of education, summed up his idea of what the school should be, and faithfully has the school lived up to his ideal. The Francis W. Parker school was one of the first to start experimenting in the States. Under Miss Flora Cooke, the present able Principal, the school contains 450 pupils of both sexes, ranging from kindergarten to college age. Here the craft work, printing, modelling, pottery and painting are distinctly above the average. Assemblies, conducted by the children, are held in the middle of the morning and are considered to be an extremely important part of school life. On the day I visited the school the 10 to 11-year-olds were presenting a geography Project dealing with the varying climatic conditions in the States. Each child stepped out quietly and spoke for a few minutes, usually illustrating the remarks with maps or models.

In one classroom I found the children of from 9 to 10 years working at a dramatization of the Odyssey which when complete was to be presented to the Assembly.

Records of the school's work and experiments are published from time to time in booklet form under the name of *The Francis W. Parker School Studies in Education.*

Edgewood School, Greenwich, Conn.

The Fairhope Organic School, Alabama, and the Edgewood School are both inspired by Mrs. Marietta L. Johnson. Mrs. Johnson believes that the child must be allowed to live his life according to his needs, that his education and environment must follow his *present* interests and not be planned to prepare him for future living only, that it is from the right ful-

filment of the present that the perfect future is born. Mrs. Johnson does not advocate intelligence tests or any measurements which may tend to standardise a child. She is a great propaganda force in the States, rousing people to new conceptions of education and child nature.

At Edgewood, one of the few co-educational schools, I found a beautiful school in charge of Miss Elizabeth Langley, where boys and girls are healthy and happy, growing strong and free in an atmosphere of love and understanding. They believe at Edgewood that the child's "individual needs and growth are superior to the claims of a fixed curriculum and that by following his especial needs he will advance in physical and mental well-being, and that there will thus be a larger ultimate outcome even in terms of the curriculum." Nevertheless, "freedom, while the magic word, is never thought of as synonymous with casual, haphazard work. In all groups the child must, within the range of his own choice, meet the responsibilities of that choice."

Ethical Culture School, N.Y. City

Founded in 1876 by Dr. Felix Adler as a free kindergarten for the children of working parents, the school has developed so that it now contains children of all classes from kindergarten to college age. The ideal behind its general education is to train "reformers . . . . persons who believe that their salvation consists in re-acting beneficently upon their environment." Miss Goodlander has reorganised the kindergarten and primary grades and made them centres of "creative living."

From time to time records of the children's work are published and a copy of one of these which was given to me is particularly interesting. It is devoted to the Primary department and contains a most illuminating stenographic report of the whole of the conversation of a group of kindergarten children who were occupying themselves with a project, *The Building of a Pullman Car.* The way in which the children agreed and disagreed in turn, yet solved their difficulties and continued their work, would convince any who may still doubt the success of the Project Method.

The Walden School, N.Y. City

Perhaps the special feature of this school is its work in the psychological study of pupils. Very interesting records are kept of each child's psychological development. The school secures the co-operation of the parents, and by frank discussion with them, the teachers have been able to help children whose difficulties were rooted in home conditions. The children are allowed to develop freely and there is evidence on every side of creative activity.

The Park School, Cleveland

The Park School, under the leadership of Miss Lewis, is a very interesting co-educational school in which are seen some of the new methods of education. It has a delightful atmosphere of happiness and freedom.

Shady Hill School, Cambridge, Mass.

This school was established by several Harvard professors for their children. Unlike most other schools, those responsible for its foundation concentrated on staff and methods rather than upon buildings and equipment. The buildings consist of several wooden huts and the children work largely in the open air. A site for new school buildings has recently been procured. The Principal is a pupil of the Francis Parker School and continues Col. Parker's traditions with success.

Keith Country Day School, Rockford

This school was started by Mrs. Keith primarily to educate her own daughter, and has developed into a country day school under the headship of Miss Philbrick. The children are able to express themselves creatively in many directions and the development of hobbies has been an interesting feature of the school work,

leading the children to acquire a useful stock of general knowledge.

The splendid work of Mr. L. Young Correthers in the art department has already been mentioned.

Horace Mann School, N.Y. City

The Horace Mann is a large city school for boys and girls and is officially connected with Teachers College. It is progressive though not experimental. The kindergarten and primary grades are under the direction of Dr. Patty Hill and are doing valuable work. The self-government is good. I was allowed to attend a meeting of some of the senior children who were discussing whether certain of their fellows were suitable for positions of responsibility in the school. I was much impressed by the keenness of their judgment, the tolerance of their verdicts and their estimate of the qualities of leadership.

The North Shore Country Day School, Illinois

Under the leadership of Mr. Perry Dunlap Smith this is one of the best of the progressive schools. It is organised on what has come to be known as the "Country Day School" Plan, which requires pupils to stay at school the whole day, lunching together, studying together and taking part in organised sports. This Plan aids the development of the community spirit. The work of the Lower School centres round the Project Method. An important feature of the school is the morning assembly at which children from the first grade to the high school meet together and share experiences of work or play.

Space will not allow adequate mention of all the fine work that is being done in these schools but we hope in future numbers to publish special articles on them.

State Schools

In most countries educational reformers and private experimenters realise that the chief value of their experiments lies in the possibility of the results being applied to State schools through which the mass of the people pass.

In the U.S.A. there is no central board of control for education such as the Board of Education in England. In each town the schools are controlled by an elected committee. This, of course, results in a good deal of variety in school method and provides opportunities for pioneer work. Where the public are sufficiently well-informed to elect an up-to-date committee and appoint a superintendent who is in touch with the progressive movement in education, it is possible to experiment on a scale that would be quite impossible in Europe, as, for example, the Gary Schools, Indiana, the Platoon Plan at Detroit and the Winnetka Schools—all ventures in State education.

Most of the schools are graded in the same way. A child passes through twelve grades, six in the Elementary Grade from six to twelve years, three in the Junior High School from twelve to fifteen years, and three in the Senior High School from fifteen to eighteen years, at which stage the normal child is ready to take the College Entrance Examination.

There are a number of State schools experimenting with the newer methods of education, but there are also, as in all countries, a very great number still following the beaten track. On the whole the primary education has advanced very rapidly and one is particularly impressed by the amount of material with which the children are surrounded, by the synthetic training they receive and the high degree of self-expression achieved.

On the whole the State schools suffer from being too large for many of them contain from 1,500 to 4,000 or even 5,000 children. They are not able to give individual attention to the children, although in nearly all the schools a trained psychologist is on the staff, who is in charge of the records and intelligence testing, and whose special work is the study of difficult children. Here again the cases are often followed right into the home.

In most of these schools use is made of the public libraries, art galleries and

museums and there is a close co-operation between the officials of these public amenities and the school authorities.

Miss Irwin's Experiment

Miss Irwin is teaching in a New York State school of 2,500 children, one hundred of whom have been given to her special care. She is conducting them through grade after grade from six years upwards. During the first eighteen months of school life there is no academic work at all. The children are allowed to express themselves and to play with the ample material which is provided for the training of the senses, for gaining muscular control and for the development of social habits. Projects form the basis of group work. After this period the children give 1½ hours daily to academic work, the remainder of the time being free for various forms of creative work. Intelligence testing shows that these children have an I.Q. considerably higher than the children in the other part of the school. Miss Irwin's rooms are quite unlike the old style of classroom—the children move about freely, sit in little wicker chairs, talk to each other as much as they wish and make free use of play-things and materials.

High School

In the high schools, advance in educational method has not been so great, largely owing to the college entrance examinations, which have not yet been adapted to new conceptions of education, although there are signs that some of the more up-to-date colleges are re-considering the whole basis of their examinations. In the State high schools, not only are the educational methods inferior to those in use for younger children, but the standard of achievement is, on the whole, lower than in European schools. This can, I think, be explained by the fact that whereas in most European secondary schools the proportion of children with poor heredity and poor social environment is exceedingly small, children of all classes attend the American high schools. One attempt to remedy this has been made by segregating the children of high I.Q. and teaching them separately. There is also a tendency to aim at covering a very wide range of subjects which has the effect of dissipating the students' energies. In addition to this, the high school pupils enter the larger life of the town at an early age and become involved in many subordinate interests and pleasures which all tend to detract from the concentration and peace necessary to the harmonious unfolding of youth.

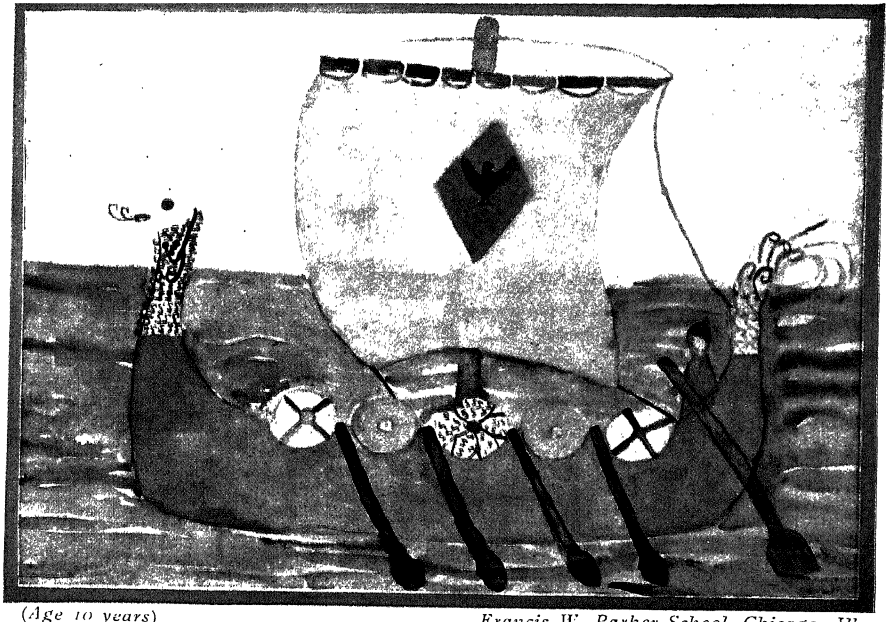
Resumé

The chief impressions left on my mind after my very brief visit, which, of course, only allowed a swift glance at a small section of the educational work,

(1) Education, a Science

The decidedly scientific approach to educational problems. Psychology and science are brought much more to the service of education than in Europe. American educationists are not satisfied to say that a child is dull or stupid; they find out why a child is abnormal. An interesting example quoted to me was that of a boy who could not read. After much testing and physical examination it was discovered that there was a certain defect in the eyes, which had escaped the oculist, and which prevented the child from seeing a word as a whole, and therefore recognizing it readily. The child is studied from four main standpoints—physical condition, mentality, habits and social faculties.

Most of the universities recognise pedagogy as an important department, and a large number of professors and educational administrators are studying the newer methods in education and organising regular courses which are attended by inspectors, superintendents and head teachers, who realise, more than in Europe, the value of keeping up-to-date with the findings of educational research. Education is a science in the States, and scientifically minded men are applying themselves to its problems—with very substantial results.



(*Age 10 years*) *Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Ill.*

(*Age 10 years*) *Lincoln School, New York*

(*Age 10 years*) *Mohegan Modern School, Peekskill, N.Y.*

(2) Primary Education Advance

On the whole the education of the child under twelve years is very much in advance of anything we have in Europe, but on the other hand, for reasons already stated, an equal progress has not been made as yet in high school. No doubt this condition will be remedied in the near future as the pupils used to the new methods from the beginning pass from the primary grades to the higher grades. The new methods are of such recent application that those benefiting from them have not yet reached high school age and consequently their influence on high school education has not made itself felt.

The primary grade children are much more articulate than our European children because they are trained from the very beginning to express themselves in many different ways, but in some schools I felt that a good deal of their knowledge was superficial, that their treatment of a subject had not been so deep as it would have been in the best schools in Europe.

(3) Co-operation Among Teachers

There is far more co-operation between the teachers themselves. In many schools the staff return several days before the beginning of term in order to correlate their schemes of work. There is also a far greater co-operation with parents than in Europe.

Teachers are much better paid and consequently are able to travel and take part in many re-creative activities. For instance, most teachers possess a motor car! Owing to their long summer holidays they are able to attend courses of instruction and keep up-to-date in their special subjects and in the newer methods of teaching. Every seven years they have a year off on full pay, which enables them to travel widely.

(4) General Atmosphere

I missed the natural beauty of our European progressive schools, which are generally in the country; I missed a certain atmosphere found in such boarding schools as Bedales in England, l'Ecole des Roches in France and the Odenwaldschule in Germany, which comes perhaps from a deep realisation of the spiritual values in education. It is perhaps easier to procure this background in the old countries, re-inforced by age-long tradition, than in a new land which has yet to create its own special atmosphere. Also in Europe the new schools have been largely built up by the present principals who, being visionaries, have intuitionally arrived at the new conception of education, whereas in the States the new schools are more firmly established on a basis of scientific research.

More money is spent on education in the States; there are greater opportunities for everybody; there are wonderful buildings with abundant equipment but, owing to the size of the schools and the large number of children to be dealt with, there is danger of over-organization and of too much attention being paid to the material side of life. This however may be temporary, and perhaps when America has set an example to the world in the matter of the material welfare of her children she will have time to listen to the stirrings of the spirit and its needs.

Progressive Education Association Conference

The Conference held at Boston at the end of April was extremely well attended by educationists from all over the States. One cannot help being impressed by the universality of the new education movement. Certain similarities in basic principles and often in application are constantly discovered by people who have never heard of each other. On the other hand, universality does not necessarily mean unanimity, and one rejoices in diversities of method which bespeak vigour and ensure progress.

The Progressive Education Association and the New Education Fellowship do not stand for any one plan, method, or system but exist to study and disseminate news of all experimental work.

In one of the lectures Prof. W. E.

Hocking, of Harvard, stressed the fact that creativity is a habit and that the child may be trained from the beginning either to create or to imitate. It is essential, he believes, to realise the necessity for balance between the opposites of giving a child too much from without and of not giving it sufficient, between making a subject too abstract and too concrete. Life is a totality, therefore education must lead to the whole as well as to the part. Beyond what we know there is what we do not know. We must leave for the child the wonder and mystery of the unknown. Prof. Hocking drew attention to the importance of meditation, as used in Tagore's school, for only by going within can we explore the great Without.

Prof. H. Mearns, of the Lincoln School, author of *Creative Youth*, maintained that we know next to nothing about youth, that we have not the means of discovering the latent powers of youth and that many a boy or girl at school is dubbed stupid simply because we do not know how to unfold the genius within. One such boy who was classified as unintelligent was a born baseball player and has since become famous. Another boy thought to be dull has been a remarkable organiser of the five and ten cents stores. A girl who seemed interested in nothing but drawing has become a famous portrait painter. Prof. Mearns considered that the most important factor in freeing a child from inhibition was the relationship between the child and the teacher. Sympathy and understanding from the teacher was a strong power making for release in the child.

Mr. L. Young Correthers, art master at Keith Country Day School, spoke of the need for a plentiful supply of materials with which the children could express themselves. At Keith Country Day School the children are encouraged to visit the art studio whenever they feel inclined and very remarkable work has been the result.

Dr. Lucy Wilson, Principal of the S. Philadelphia High School for Girls, who has spent four months in Russia studying the new methods there, gave a most interesting description of what she had seen. She asked the audience to put aside any prejudices they might have with regard to Russia's political views and to remember the tragic history of the present generation in Russia. The educational authorities have studied the newer movements and methods but they feel that it is essential that their methods should grow from within and be based upon Russian psychology. The system which has been evolved is known as the Complex System, and is similar to the Project Method but more elaborate. Examinations are prohibited by law. If teachers cannot tell how children have progressed they may assign a problem for a group's co-operative solution. Every school has a museum and a great part of the exhibits are the work of the children themselves. Country boarding schools have been established for all and Moscow educational authorities make it part of the programme for town children to spend a certain period of the year in a country school and for the country children to spend a period in a town school. Since the new regime, 86 new universities have been started and students from both the bourgeoisie and the aristocracy are admitted to them if they can prove themselves intelligent! Craft, music and the other arts are an intrinsic part of all education.

For the training of teachers Experimental Stations for the Study of Pedagogy have been established, with living accommodation attached, to which teachers can go in vacation. A hundred miles from Moscow in a children's colony organised before the Revolution, Stanislaus Shatzky, one of Russia's great teachers, meets the teachers from the surrounding villages every fortnight for discussion and observation.

The educational leaders in Russia are eager to experiment and to adopt successful results. They realise that a plan of education can never be rigid and fixed but must change constantly in order to meet the needs of new human factors which are continually being discovered.

Moreover, they believe, as we believe, that it is more important for a teacher to have a rich and balanced personality and a deep understanding of human nature than to have her mind stocked with numerous facts and educational theories.

Dr. M. C. Del Manzo, of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, spoke of the effort of the Institute to promote understanding between teachers and students of different countries. The Institute has funds at its disposal for the assistance of foreign students who wish to spend time in America and vice versa; it also initiates research work in various countries, the results of the research being available in printed form to show educational progress all over the world. During the present year the number of foreign students at the Institute is 283, representing 50 countries. Visits are arranged to various States and their educational institutions are studied at first hand. It is the hope of the Institute that by these exchanges "both foreign and American students may return to their respective tasks with a clearer purpose and finer resolution to serve mankind through childhood in the true spirit of international goodwill."

Sir John Adams, of London University, gave a lecture on the new methods in Europe and described the educational reforms in the leading countries. I followed with a lecture on the new ideals in education in Europe, describing the chief experimental schools.

The exhibition of art work from the progressive schools which was shown at the Conference was certainly the most remarkable that I have ever seen. The children who have done this work are just ordinary children, without any outstanding genius, and when one sees such work and senses what it means to a child to be able to produce it, one realises the tragedy of the millions of children in the world whose creative powers are still unreleased, owing to the wrong type of education still imposed upon them.

The New Crusade

After attending such a conference as that at Boston or our own at Heidelberg last Summer, after seeing the exhibition of work and visiting the progressive schools, one sees that our movement is more than a movement, it is a Cause evoking self-sacrifice, enthusiasm and work from those whose love leads them to seek to free the children from the shackles of the past. We pioneers are crusaders in the children's cause.

In order to synthesise the work of this great crusade we have planned a closer co-operation between the Fellowship and the Progressive Education Association.* We hope to be able to arrange a special tour next year for American teachers, visiting the Continent in June and July, who wish to see the new schools in Europe. We shall also try to arrange a more systematic exchange of teachers between Europe and America.†

Those who wish to keep up-to-date in the progress of the new education movement **all over the world** should read the *Progressive Education* magazine as well as *The New Era.*

Are You a Member of the New Education Fellowship?

Especially do I ask readers to realise that the Fellowship's work is financed solely by the subscriptions received for *The New Era* magazine. Unlike other associations we have no special subscription for membership, the subscription to the magazine carrying with it membership of the Fellowship. Therefore do not be content if you see someone else's copy of *The New Era,* but subscribe for a copy of your own, realising that by thus paying the small subscription of 4/6 you are

* The Progressive Education Association, 10, Jackson Place, Washington, D.C., U.S.A. For full description of its valuable work see page 120. Subscription, including quarterly magazine, $2 (8/-) per year.

† A new bureau for this purpose has recently been started at The Teachers' Bureau, 270, Boylston Street, Boston, Mass., U.S.A.

becoming a member of the Fellowship and contributing your small share towards the upkeep of the work.

Obituary

H. Baillie-Weaver, LL.B.

Since the last issue of our magazine Mr. H. Baillie-Weaver has passed away from our midst. Mr. Baillie-Weaver was well-known to members of the New Education Fellowship as the first Chairman of the Fellowship. He presided at our Conference at Calais and Montreux. Though not a teacher himself he was a great worker for all progressive movements, believing that the true foundation of all reform lay in education. Mr. Baillie-Weaver's many sided interests, his wide knowledge, his gift of languages, his international spirit and his genial personality were appreciated by all who knew him. We felt that in him we had not only a leader but a friend who could be approached by all and sundry for help in personal difficulties. He has left a gap that we know not how to fill.

Visit to South Africa

Our Editor will be visiting South Africa. Will Associations and individuals who would like to avail themselves of her services as lecturer please write to The Secretary, New Educational Fellowship, 11, Tavistock Square, London, England.

To Art and Craft Teachers

All art teachers should procure the special number of *Progressive Education* on "Creative Expression Through Art." In a hundred pages, profusely illustrated in colour, the remarkable art work in the American progressive schools is revealed. Price 4/4 post free from the New Education Fellowship, 11, Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

The Lincoln School

By Dr. Matthew H. Willing

(*Member of the Research Staff of the Lincoln School, N.Y.*)

It is hard to begin talking about the value of an experimental school without an effort at definition. What is an experimental school? One really ought to be able to say, but some very earnest and extended efforts on my part have not succeeded. Each time that I have tried to work out a definition I have found myself merely generalizing on those features of the Lincoln School with which I am most familiar and assuming that those personal experiences are fundamental principles. I fear, therefore, that I cannot give you any large portion of the ultimate truth about the genus experimental school. What I say will have to be about the Lincoln School alone and in the way of telling you what it is like, what it is doing and what I think it has to offer to those engaged in education outside its walls.

The Lincoln School began work in the fall of 1917, occupying temporary quarters downtown and enrolling during the first school year 116 pupils in grades one to nine. It moved several years later to a beautiful six-story building, designed and built for its special purposes and located within a few blocks of Teachers College, Columbia. Its enrolment this year is 480 in grades one to twelve, about equally divided between boys and girls and between the elementary grades and the high school. The money for the building, equipment and yearly operation has been given by the General Education Board, except for a relatively small income from tuition. The finances are managed through the office of the treasurer of Teachers College, and the school itself is under the professional supervision of that College.

The school is organized with one principal in charge of the elementary grades and one in charge of both junior and senior high school divisions.

Over the entire organization presides a director, Dr. Otis W. Caldwell, who has held this position from the first. He, more than any one else, has been responsible for defining the objects of the institution and for guiding it in its development. It exists to-day very much as an expression of his views about education and educational experimentation. I am not referring to details, of course, but to policies, spirit and general procedure.

There are at present sixty-seven people listed as members of the staff, twenty-eight men and thirty-nine women. Just what the necessary qualifications are for admission to this staff I cannot say, and the other members of the staff have failed to help me out. Some people are there, it would seem, because they have done something conspicuously well elsewhere, others because the director thinks they may do something conspicuously well at Lincoln, still others because they want to do particular things that seem worth doing, and many because they are proved teachers and can be trusted to keep the school going in spite of experimenters. At any rate they are, happily, not an over-homogeneous crowd. They subscribe in full to no common educational creed or mode and have hitched their wagons to no one compelling star. Some are enthusiasts, others are sceptics. Some *live* with children; others *investigate* children; still others *drill* them—when they can. In the present indetermination of educational theory it is probably well for children to meet them all and take their treatments. But, indeed, with all their individual differences, the members of the staff are highly sensitive to this much of a common purpose; namely, to find out something about education that will be sound and usable. It is a well-integrated group in this essential respect.

The pupils in the Lincoln School come from a good many sections of the city and from the nearer suburban towns. They are a somewhat selected body, though a good deal of care is exercised to maintain certain balances of intelligence and social and occupational background. In particular, a limit has had to be set upon the number of children from the families of college teachers and other professional people. The neighbourhood is full of these, and they all want an education for their children as unique as possible. The average of the intelligence quotients of the Lincoln School pupils is above that of the typical public school, but the range is much the same. But though these children pretty largely come from homes of education and cannot be accounted dull, yet they are not geniuses, as now and then someone reports.

The school is very well satisfied with its co-educational character. While the association of boys and girls through all the grades of the elementary and secondary school is no new thing in parts of the country, it is somewhat of a departure in the east and suits the experimental character of the school.

The usual academic studies, in name at least, appear on the high school programmes, with the exception of Latin. French, Spanish and German are offered in all grades above the sixth. German is taught regularly in the sixth grade and at present French is being tried there also. Co-ordinated or newly synthesized subject-matter in mathematics, social studies and science distinguishes the curriculum of the junior high school. These are so-called general courses. The courses in the senior high school have not as yet departed far enough from the traditional to seriously endanger pupils' chances of passing the college entrance examinations. In the elementary school an activities curriculum is growing up, each year becoming more defined, more comprehensive and more sequential. There is, however, throughout the school no printed course of study, no hard and fast specification for the work of year or month or day, no final and unalterable order of events. In so far as such things ever become necessary, in so far will the institution cease to be experimental.

Such is the school in outline. And now what is it all for? What stirring ideas give force and line to its complex activities? And what are those activities? First, as to the driving ideas: The temptation is strong to picture the school for the moment as a highly conscious instrument of mind and purpose rushing forward under the urge of some great challenging philosophy of life to save the world from an impending educational doom. This, or else a highly concentrated shaft of light penetrating the fogs of false psychology and ineffective practice that smother the hopes and powers of our youth in schools to-day. But all this would be mere rhetoric and pretty well muddled at that. The Lincoln School is neither the fulfilment nor the fulfiller of any one doctrine, theory or method of education. Like many other schools, but with greater facilities than most, it is trying only to discover and insure for children those experiences which will most definitely make them fit to live in a modern world and able and eager to make a modern world more fit to live in.

As a chief means to this end, the school has from the start emphasized the remaking of the curriculum. The work has gone on in many ways, at many levels and is now at many stages. It is interesting to note that two apparently contrasting points of view have directed much of it. Many members of the staff have been studying the curriculum problem from the point of view of society—its present nature and its needs. Many others have been attacking it from the point of view of the child—his nature and his needs. In the end, each of these points of view should comprehend the other, and will, in the Lincoln School where abundant opportunity is offered for their association. It is pretty hard in the midst of practical everyday experience, as interpreted here by independent and critical minds, to persistently maintain that one sees in children mysterious

somethings not the results of social forces acting on them, or that one sees in society anything more than an organization for the happiness and welfare of individuals. One gradually grows wary of teachers who know children but not society, and of teachers who know society but not children. And yet people must take sides—if only on the ground of relative emphasis—and, according to their temperaments, experiences, fields of work or fancied interests, do that which seems to them most good.

And so at the Lincoln School we have one set of people who try, for example, to get partial clues for biology courses from the references in daily newspapers; or to determine the relative importance of geographic location facts from references and articles in magazines, critical journals and current books, plus many such criteria as are furnished by statistics of trade, area, population, resources, and financial transactions; or to find out from analysis of the writings of frontier thinkers the real predicament of this befuddled world and the matters, principles, concepts, generalizations, terms and habits of thought that children should master now if they are to do anything about it later.

On the other hand, there may be observed at the Lincoln School teachers who initiate curriculum study by starting children on fascinating, richly promising activities—for example, the making of play villages out of packing boxes, the construction of boats and bridges, the building and equipping of a Chinese house, the making and use of hand looms, the modelling of mediæval castles, the assembling of block floor maps of Manhattan Island, the care and raising of white rats, canaries and baby alligators, the managing of school banks, the production of newspapers, magazines and plays, the making of drums, marimbas, reed flutes, tubaphones and primitive looking fiddles; and the composing of music to go with them.

Here curriculum study, when once the children are at work, consists in watching them, noting and recording questions, effects, enthusiasms, personal revelations, increase in knowledge, adventures in creativeness, use of and advances in the more traditional arts and skills of the schoolroom; and, finally, in rendering judgment on the whole work-unit as a desirable part of a modern curriculum.

While the greater part of this kind of work has been carried on in the elementary school, very interesting and significant results from much the same sort of thing have been secured in high-school English. Here the activity set in motion has been the creating of verse, story and essay for personal expression, the pleasure of classmates and for publication in the pupils' magazines. The curriculum material derived or discovered in this way properly includes, no doubt, the readings and discussions of the modern literary forms that proved so powerfully motivating; but much more surely it includes the resulting product itself, in this instance particularly fine, and revealing the powers of artistically creative youth.

Along with such typical illustrations of two kinds of curriculum research at Lincoln, many others might be cited, some under the first head, some under the second, and some, at one stage or another, representing a mixture of the two. Thus, among those studies in which children do not directly or initially figure, may be listed questionnaires sent out for news of present practices in history and science sequences; work with national committees in mathematics, science and history; collecting bibliographies and reading lists; searching for, revising or creating freshly the actual materials of instruction in every subject, and organizing the same; in short, all attempts to get information about objectives, present trends, current opinion, sources of material and relative importances, and all attempts to put materials together before actual trial with the pupils. A very impressive number of these kinds of studies have been made in the last eight or nine years, and the schedule for the future is crowded.

Other examples of curriculum research in which the reactions of the children are

of first importance centre in the conduct and direction of field trips and the production of creative works in fine and industrial arts.

The two points of view converge many times in almost all curriculum research. It has to be admitted sooner or later that a curriculum which a pupil cannot or will not accept is no good, and a pupil activity which society cannot or will not accept is no good. In a school where the teacher who initiates a pupil activity cannot get away from its social results and where a researcher who finds and organizes materials cannot ignore their effect upon pupils, a great deal of light is cast upon the whole business of successful curriculum making. Both the pupil and society get consideration before the case is closed.

The household arts department, in trying to solve the problem of how to minimize interest in technical processes and increase appreciation of the principles of good homemaking, gets its objective from an observed social need, but its clues as to materials are being furnished by the girls themselves. The desire of the physical training department to promote individual sport interests takes its rise from perceiving the need for these among grown people, but the curriculum it is making will be drawn very largely from observation of what pupils do under various experimental conditions. Likewise the curriculum designed to interest and develop pupils in diversified practical skills will, in the case of the industrial arts department, grow out of a fusion of social concern and observed pupil activity. Thus, too, several years spent in objectively testing achievement in physics and chemistry, unit by unit at Lincoln and elsewhere, under all sorts of teaching conditions and methods, is revealing how much of these subjects that is undoubtedly socially valuable either cannot be taught successfully as now taught, or cannot be taught successfully at all to pupils of high-school age. The social studies investigation applies a similar check to its materials in use; so, changing from a very emphatic social point of view during the setting of objectives and the first decision of content to a thoroughly psychological one in the actual testing of materials.

The type of general method of experimentation, which also involves administrative planning, should be mentioned. It is the effort to correlate the library and the special departments, such as music, handicrafts, fine arts and physical training, with the central interests of classes. Thus it is desired that the making of boats, of villages or plays should draw at will upon the shop, the kitchen, the gymnasium and the facilities of reading, art, music and clay-modelling rooms; and this is being brought about with marked success.

And what are the tangible, usable results of all this curriculum study? In the elementary school a number of work or activity units have been carefully charted and their values descriptively indicated. A chart analysis of one of these units gives notes on the way the pupils were stimulated to undertake the work, illustrations of their questions and the problems that arose, a record of the subject-matter content that helped to solve the problems, suggestions as to probable outcomes, interests and further activities growing out of this. Detailed descriptions of the play village unit and several others have been published by the school under the title *Curriculum Studies in the Second Grade.*

A *Farm Book* for beginning reading has been written, which makes use of interests and activities such as those referred to. In the junior high school a complete set-up of a general mathematics course has gone through several experimental editions, been revised and is now being offered to the pupils as a temporarily finished thing. Elementary science material has also been put into experimental form for actual trial, and much more is accumulating. Science biographies are being written to supplement the work in upper grades. The social studies investigation, by far the most comprehensive and striking of all the curriculum studies, has resulted in

twelve thick pamphlets of materials now in the third experimental edition. Four of these pamphlets are assigned to each grade of the junior high school. They have such titles as these: *Industries and Trade which Bind Nations Together, America's March Toward Democracy, America and Her Immigrants.* At least two hundred schools are co-operating in the trial of these materials and are providing a good deal of money to finance the continuing research.

Half the junior high school pupils at Lincoln take a form of social studies which has been organized by the history department. In this much attention is paid to the subject-matter divisions of history, geography and civics.

In English, the publication of pupils' literary work in two school pamphlets and one book is the record of achievement. In the volume *Creative Youth,* by Mr. Hughes Mearns, formerly in charge of high-school English, the pupils' work is prefaced by a detailed account of how it all happened.

In other school subjects, curriculum researches have not yet reached stages where it is safe to indicate accomplishment. Of such, of course, there are yet no printed accounts.

The school is clearly bent on bringing something new to pass in the field of the curriculum, and it has already accomplished something. It is equally certain that it has a duty to perform in connection with methods of instruction, but it has not been able so far to determine how to act upon this conviction in any very large or telling way. There are several good reasons, perhaps, for this hesitation. In the first place, one never knows, in the case of a curriculum of activities such as the elementary grades have been developing, where to catch hold of the thing we call method. When you think you have it, you usually find you haven't. At one instant the whole affair seems to be a matter of method, and at the next it's all cracker boxes, hammers, saws, nails, paint, paper, electric wiring, storekeeping or intense and bewildering social interaction. In the end, when all records have been classified and charted, one's hopes of finding method are scarcely more rewarded. He asks: How did this happen? What steps were taken here? Where did this event come in the plan? Where do our old friends—presentation, explication and application—get a hearing? What was the pupil's purpose at this point or the teacher's there? Where did induction slyly lurk, deduction spread itself or motivation stalk out in the open; and where, oh where, did the law of exercise take charge? It will require many a long day yet of keen-eyed observation and extended pedagogical analysis to separately uncover these sallow gnomes in the rich jungle of an activities report. Let us hope it never will be accomplished.

In any form of changing and developing curriculum it is almost impossible to isolate method. It simply doesn't "stay put" under such circumstances. Until we settle down a bit and arrange our new curriculum loot about us for a period of critical survey, we shall probably not contribute much to the scientific discussion of method as a thing apart.

It is to be remembered also that people look queerly at one to-day—at least in an experimental school—when one says one *feels* the values of new methods. The truth is that our pedagogical world has so long experienced nothing but dense Vesuvian smoke and hollow rumbling in this realm that it now takes the real lava of established facts to raise more than a respectful cough or deprecatory yawn. An established fact does not flow forth readily, even at the Lincoln School.

In those parts of the curriculum where subject-matter or the nature of required skills is less in controversy, method, as we usually understand it, is being seriously and profitably studied. The effects of different types of practice in reading, arithmetic and formal English are being measured. Spelling technique has gone through a considerable probing. In physics and chemistry, perhaps the greatest variety and amount of this kind of research has been done. Data of very real importance are accumulating here as

to how units and specific topics of these subjects may be taught most effectively. A special study has been under way this year on laboratory procedure, involving besides the Lincoln School several co-operating city high school science departments.

A typical plan in the school, now that the enrolment permits it, is to divide single grades into two equivalent class groups and compare results under differing methods of instruction. Much of this has been done in mathematics preliminary to broader trials of a similar kind through co-operating schools outside. At present one such study is being extended to take in some score of other schools in order to get proof of which of three methods of teaching geometry is the best—one in which the completely proved proposition is set before the pupil, one in which suggestive questions take the place of demonstrations, and one in which the pupil is guided to the discovery of truths as well as to the proofs of the propositions by means of suggestions and questions. In studying methods of teaching the formal essentials of English in the junior high school a similar procedure has been followed.

A particularly interesting method, into which, however, curriculum elements enter rather confusingly, is one carried on in eighth and tenth grade history—portions of the second social studies programme mentioned earlier. Here visualization of historical scenes, episodes and even relationships has been encouraged with striking results in graphic representation, and with evident growth in interest. Measurement of the whole outcome here, as so often elsewhere in method study, awaits a satisfactory technique.

Certain direct methods in foreign language instruction are also in the developmental stages, without any very sound technique at present for measuring them.

As in the case of curriculum research, much, one may realize, is going on in method study, but the communicable results are vastly less as yet. One may see plenty of new methods and new devices being tried out in Lincoln School classes, and one may encounter much fervid feeling on the subject here and there, but the best thing the school is doing about it all is to keep the field open and insecure conclusions out of print.

Emphatically, however, the school is not a method school. It commits itself to no one way of doing things. It is not a Dalton Plan school, nor a Winnetka Plan school, nor a socialized recitation school, nor a Project Method school, nor a visualization school, nor a play school. At various times and in various spots it may partake of all these, but if it does so, it is always with experimental, not devotional, intent.

One other great problem which the Lincoln School is thoroughly interested in is the individual development of pupils. No phase of the school's life, I think, would suggest more study, planning and checked experiment if there were only a bit more of scientifically solid ground to start from. As it is, there is little being left untried of what experience, current practice, ethical theory or psychological discovery have to offer.

From home reports come definite assurances that mental life, like social character, is expanding in these young folks in rather unusually pleasing ways. Cultured parents say that the intellectual interests of their children, aroused by the richness of the curriculum and its close relation to life as we now live it, are matters of increasing surprise at home. They do not recall a similar ability in themselves to match or outstrip their parents in the intellectual life of that world which a generation ago was modern. They find themselves bestirred to catch up with the march of things and to escape their not infrequent feeling of chagrin in conversation with their children. Some concrete evidence of the truth of this is seen in the present study class of 107 parents, which maintains a reference library for its members and meets twice monthly for discussion on

changing ideas and practices in education. From this the school, of course, derives great satisfacton.

Who knows how to run an experimental school or where may be found a code of regulations for it? The essence of the problem is not how to run a school, but how to keep it experimental; how to keep it from becoming a show place; how to keep it free from educational shibboleths; how to foster a desirable scepticism among the members of its staff; how to co-ordinate research and practice within themselves and with each other; how to prevent experiment from becoming mere quest for novelty; how to secure teachers who cannot only teach with art but also analyze and appraise impersonally; how to secure research associates who cannot only catch a slippery fact but also turn it to a human use; and, most of all, how to manage parents who, though they send their children to be experimented on, yet register excitement if the treatments vary from the good old cures. These are questions which for the director of such a school constitute his research problem. And yet Dr. Caldwell has not published a monograph on this problem, but no doubt he has one started.

If thus far an impression has been given that the Lincoln School is somewhat of a jumble and that the members of the staff must be scurrying frantically about heralding experiment and research and stopping only at rare moments to fix with glassy gaze a captured specimen of something which cannot be identified, then a very grave error has been committed. The experimental side of the school's work has been almost the sole topic of this paper. That truly is many-sided and, at first view, disconnected and never in a state of rest. Unity and poise and direction, however, are, after all, imposed by the presence of children who must be taught to read and write, do sums, spell correctly, know history, science, and pass examinations no less well than their fellows in more conventional environments. In no other way than by meeting these demands first could the school expect to get support or toleration or be of value even experimentally.

The school, as I have said repeatedly, does not surrender itself to any single brand of philosophy, psychology or instructional technique, but it does pride itself on being up-to-date. It does recognize the worth of activity in the classroom; it does set great store on the particular values of individual development in social situations; it does believe that thinking is a greater end than mastery of form, and creativeness than imitation; and it does try to get children to learn without distress.

For many people the best approach to the Lincoln School is through its publications. These are rapidly growing in number and usefulness as experience takes on more substance and meaning. They are available, at cost, direct from the school, and may be ordered from a special list or from one printed in the yearly *Descriptive Booklet*, either of which may be secured by mere request. The school does not publish texts, except in experimental editions for selected co-operating schools. The Social Science pamphlets may be secured directly from Dr. H. O. Rugg, who from the start has been himself responsible for these publications.

The following titles of Lincoln booklets, selected because of their relation to matters in this paper, will suggest the breadth and nature of the present output:

The School in General:
(1) "The Descriptive Booklet."
(2) "The Lincoln School Building."

Curriculum Material:
(3) "Curriculum Studies in the School Grade."
(4) "Objective Studies in Map Location."
(5) "Creative Youth."
(6) "Illustrations of English Work in the Junior High School."
(7) "Lincoln Verse, Story, and Essay."
(8) "Field Trip Booklet."
(9) "Creative Music."
(10) "The Farm Book."
(11) "Schoolroom Aquaria."
(12) "Candle Making."
(13) "Co-operative Work in the Organization of Material for General Science Instruction."
(14) "Making History Graphic."

(15) "Some Uses of School Assemblies."
(16) "Vacation Activities and the School."
(17) "The History Inquiry."
(18) "Relation of Geography to the Social Studies in the Curriculum."
(19) "Bibliography of Science Teaching."
(20) "Social Science Pamphlets" (H. O. Rugg).

Method and Teaching Devices:
(21) "Practice Exercises and Checks on Silent Reading in the Primary Grades."
(22) "Report on a Specific Spelling Situation."
(23) "Teaching Tests in Physics and Chemistry."
(24) "Individual Practice Materials in Arithmetic."
(25) "How Can Household Arts Be Made Effective?"

Miscellaneous:
(26) "Description of the Science Laboratories of the Lincoln School."
(27) "The Lincoln School Library."
(28) "The Student Councils."
(29) "Health and Regularity of School Attendance."

The Oak Lane Country Day School

By Francis Mitchell Frœlicher, M.A.

(*Head Master of the Oak Lane Country Day School of Philadelphia and President of the Progressive Education Association*)

THE Oak Lane Country Day School is, in many ways, typical of the cosmic experiment with freedom. One finds initiative encouraged, strange ideas countenanced, routine often neglected; purple colours where once there were grey. It is a protest against the facile uniformity of most education. Here is no wholesale standardization of personality or information. Ours is an institution of learning, not of conspicuous teaching. Teacher and student explore together; the world is full of interesting things and children want to know them until they are overfed and achieve a mental dyspepsia. There are no petty autocrats within our walls, who, in the guise of teachers, might mete out a perfect system of punishments and rewards. Our children are heard as well as seen; they are the articulate, expressive media of the school; the teachers are eloquently reticent but inspirational, suggestive and balancing.

It is a psychological supposition of ours that human beings formulate their opinions only as they express them. There is always the fringe of consciousness but seldom the focus. Adults go their several ways largely impervious to focalization. They grope for facts but facts remain alien until opinions are publicly expressed. Blindness, ignorance and unconditioned optimism are the result of inarticulate life. Always, we must set the stage, subtly but with masterful craft, so that our children will be articulate. It is less important, in the school, that we teachers should talk. Years ago, we learned what we wish our students to know; they can only learn by expressing themselves upon the materia of experience, vicarious and otherwise.

We maintain, above all, a pleasant atmosphere, a natural situation, a normal, social interplay between students and teachers. When a little boy of four years comes to us he is not an exile from his normal life at home. Instead of placing him in a formal, unnatural situation, alien to life, we offer him an extension of his experience: a place wherein to live profitably and to widen the boundaries of his real life. Attendance at school is an enlargement, not an abrupt transition.

There is some truth in the notion that philogeny parallels ontogeny. Children first live in an unmoral ether of fancy. Fairy stories are natural to them. We tell them about Epaminondas or Jack the Giant-Killer. They love to dramatize stories. Life is to them incessant activity and only gradually do words and meanings seize hold upon them. The

mental phase of evolution is yet in its veriest infancy. In the earliest grades, the activities of primitive man appeal. Cave men, Esquimaux and Tree Dwellers have a strong attraction at six and seven years. At eight, perhaps, there is a sensing of consecutive temporal relations. The meaning of the word "primitive" is discerned. History begins, not as a new and strange puzzle or exercise of rote memory but as a natural outgrowth of experience. Everything, either more or less remote, is related to the present and future and is thus considered temporally. Beyond this, appears, at first vaguely, then clearly, a sense of location. Children begin to place events. Early Greek and Roman hero stories lead to topographical differentiation. The ancient world forms a matriarchal background for geographic explorations. Geography has begun.

In a similar fashion, all subjects are begun. Because the inception is thus unwittingly entered upon, our school eliminates much of the artifice of large flat Geography books and silly outlines of dates and events. Erudite tomes are, to be sure, used in abundance. Each room has its own reference library. No text is, however, regarded as the ultimate agency to transmute ignorance into knowledge. Problems but not books are studied and when a problem is under investigation, the several members of the group search out the facts in a number of different volumes, pool their results, rate the evidence and reach rational conclusions. These findings are tabulated. With minute care a body of information is amassed that not only outtops any single text but is also of an interesting personal nature. Induced acquisitions of this type are likely to remain as relatively permanent, whereas the use of a single, standardized text, on a categorical question and answer basis, builds up a temporary, artificial structure of partial relationships.

Our teachers are selected because of their native aptitude in dealing with children, parents and information. They are at once troubled and blessed with inquisitive natures; troubled because no problem ever seems finally solved, blessed because ultimate solutions imply equilibrium and decay. There are no autocrats among them to set up a defensive armour of punishments. They are not aloof. Their spirit of inquiry is shared with their students.

We respect our students: the girls who bring us perennially their first poetry about the budding, unfolding and withering of the rose or the boy who for himself discovers that life is like a varied and tributaried stream. Sympathy and respect from us, breed the same for us in them. To be complete, respect, like friendships, must be mutual.

To offset the present day disillusion and sophistication of boys and girls, teachers everywhere are finding romanticism in the realities of science and definite human achievement. This is a step forward. Physical life and growth, including the problems of sex, are more openly and prevalently discussed. With the present eroticism in American literature, periodical and otherwise, the question is inescapable.

The prohibition amendment to our constitution, in itself a stupid blunder in the laws of life, has precipitated a frank discussion. Parents who cared nothing for liquor before the law was passed now hoard their little stocks and spend extravagant sums for contraband goods. Their sons and daughters too often emulate them and delight in the surreptitious acquisition and consumption of whiskey and gin.

Our policy in dealing with matters of this kind is based upon the commonsense of each solution as it arises but in no case do we blindfold a child and lead him past a question in ignorance. He must ultimately face them all and there is ever some way of giving him an honest, preliminary viewpoint, even when he is too young to enter fully into the solution. This is a vitally important feature of our method, a procedure that requires courage, discretion and understanding.

Co-education, were it universal, would partially dissolve the fog of sex mystery.

Mingling boys and girls under a set of mediæval restrictions has led to disaster but in a natural environment it leads to good. Parents frequently fear to let their daughters go to school with boys and fathers often prefer their boys to remain Spartan and apart from feminine influences. Thus the boys are brought up through their most formative years without any but artificial or clandestine knowledge of the ways of girls and the girls exist in an illusive ignorance of the every-day masculine. Finally, in this unintelligent way, marriage occurs and co-education begins. The majority of the many, present-day maladjustments in matrimony are directly traceable to this early parental evasion of a tremendously important issue.

It is not possible, in this short paper, to enter into the specific technique of the school. Careful studies are made of the character, health, mental ability and information of each pupil. These include composite subjective ratings of initiative, self-control, perseverance, honesty, and numerous other characteristics. Intelligence tests (more accurately called "Scholastic Aptitude" tests) are applied to each child. His personal interests and aptitudes are carefully considered. A physician and a resident "Health Supervisor" maintain appropriate fresh air, proper light and temperature, correct posture and frequently advise parents concerning all physical matters of growth. Defective vision and posture are corrected. Because of this care on the part of the Health Supervisor and the resulting co-operation of parents, an average attendance of approximately 90 per cent. has been maintained over a period of five years. Standardized tests of information, such as the "Stanford Achievement Test," give a reasonably accurate check upon increases in information. Such tests, like the others, are diagnostic both of individual and group weakness and are only valuable when followed up by appropriate measures in every case.

It would be a pleasure to go into these things more in detail with English and European Schools. We shall welcome at all times any inquiries that come to our school and we hope that we may have the benefit of a more extensive interchange and sharing of ideas.

Will Schools needing the following communicate with the New Education Fellowship:—

1. German teachers either *au pair* or salaried, for long or short periods, or in exchange with English teachers. We have several applicants with varied qualifications.
2. French teachers.
   (*a*) *Au pair* post wanted in English private family by French lady for July, August and September. Willing to give French lessons or help with light domestic work. Can also teach singing and music.
   (*b*) Two holiday posts wanted by English teachers in schools or families. One wishes to go abroad, the other will accept post at home or abroad for August and September and is a qualified Montessori teacher.

We would like to hear from families who will accept French or German students as paying guests and assist them in the study of the English language.

Winnetka—An Educational Laboratory

By Carleton Washburne

(*Superintendent of the Public Schools of Winnetka, Illinois*)

GROUP and creative activities which will give every child a chance to develop his own special interests and abilities, and training in the use of these special abilities for the benefit of the group, and individual mastery by all children of those knowledges and skills which they are reasonably sure to need in life—these are the main goals of the educational research, the experimentation, and the organization of the public elementary schools of Winnetka, Illinois.

Winnetka is a comfortable, attractive suburb of Chicago, on the shores of Lake Michigan. About half the men are business and professional men whose offices are in Chicago, and whose incomes are sufficient to give them attractive homes. The other half range downward through various social strata to the immigrant labourer, the street sweeper and the garbage collector. The children from all these homes attend the Winnetka public schools, except for a small minority, who either attend the local Roman Catholic parochial school or the private North Shore Country Day School. These two, however, have no monopoly on the children of either the poor or the rich.

There is a strong community spirit in Winnetka, manifesting itself in the nationally known Community House—a village club open to all residents, with gymnasium, with theatre for the "Community Players," cinema, and other gatherings, with club rooms for many organizations, with dining hall for banquets, manifesting itself also in the community golf course, tennis courts, and baseball diamond, community bathing beach and bath house, and especially in the type of men and women who control all village affairs—the village council, the library board, the park board, and the local board of education.

The board of education consists of seven members—men and women—elected in rotation, for three year terms. They appoint the superintendent of schools—an officer who is chief executive for all aspects of the school work: finances, buildings and grounds, selection and placing of teachers, organization of curriculum and time-table, selection of text books, etc., subject to the general approval of the board of education and to the state laws and county regulations. These laws and regulations merely establish certain minimum requirements as to the subjects to be taught, the length of the school year, the training to be required of teachers, compulsory attendance, and provisions for safety and sanitation. There are no state-imposed examinations, time-tables, text books, or other similar obstacles in the way of progress. The superintendent, therefore, has great freedom to make what he can of the schools.

The system consists of four schools—free, of course, and providing free text books. Three schools run from kindergarten through sixth grade—children five years old to eleven or twelve; the fourth is a two-year junior high school, for all children who have completed sixth grade. Graduates of the junior high school usually go to the township senior high school, together with graduates from the schools of two or three other nearby villages of about the size of Winnetka or smaller. This township high school is under an independent board of education and superintendent.

There are about sixteen hundred children in the Winnetka schools—about four hundred to each building. There is a supervising principal in each building—women for the lower grades, a man for the junior high school—each with a staff of teachers large enough so that classes

will average thirty children to a teacher, and practically never exceed thirty-eight. There are also supervisors of music, art, nature study, remedial case work, and socialized activities, playground directors, and two school nurses, making a total staff of seventy-five.

The school buildings are modern, attractive, and well-equipped, surrounded with ample play space.

Under these favourable circumstances, with freedom, with an intelligent, sympathetic board of education, with good equipment, with an adequate staff of well-trained teachers, we have been able to make our schools an educational laboratory for attacking some of the problems that educators must solve.

Our basic philosophy can be simply stated. We believe that childhood is an important part of life—not merely as preparation for the future, but in itself and for its own sake. We believe that human progress depends on the fullest possible development of the special potentialities of each child, so that he, by his variation from the norm, may contribute to human evolution. We believe that the highest individual development involves a social consciousness—a deep seated realization on the part of each person of the interdependence of man upon man and nation upon nation—of the fundamental unity of mankind. We believe, also, that every child should be prepared for efficient living in the world as it is to-day—whatever its faults he must live in it in order to change it.

In accordance with this philosophy we provide many non-academic creative and group activities, but also provide for individual mastery of such facts and skills as are needed in to-day's world.

Chronologically, it was necessary first to work out a technique by which the facts and skills could be mastered by children more efficiently than in ordinary schools so that we might have time clear for the socialized and creative activities. We wanted a technique which would be essentially sane, which would not increase costs, and which would be universally applicable. We have now experimented seven years with such a technique, the results have been measured with great care and found to be more than satisfactory. While there is need for much further research, for improvement of materials and refinement of methods, the fundamental principles of the technique conform, we believe, to the above criteria. The technique is, briefly, as follows:—

1. Restate the curriculum in very specific terms—specify the exact degree of knowledge or skill which all children are to attain. This requires much clearer thinking than is usually done in the educational world. For its satisfactory completion it requires much painstaking, scientific research. In Winnetka we have tried to make use of the research that has been carried forward elsewhere, and our own teachers have again and again participated in research: to find out what facts and what skills are demanded in the world to-day; to find out, further, when these can be most effectively introduced.

Where research is still inadequate to give us the necessary data, we are forced to use, temporarily, our best guesses as to what present society demands. But we don't fool ourselves; we clearly differentiate between those facts and skills which are taught because we *know* children will need them, and those which we teach because we *guess* that children will need them.

It is essential to specify these facts and skills very definitely. It is not enough to say, for example, that every child shall study long division. We need to specify that he shall learn to do division examples with two-place divisors and four-place dividends, so constructed that there is a naught in the middle of the quotient or a naught at the end of the quotient, a remainder, a trial divisor, and a mixture of these difficulties, and that he shall do such examples with 100 per cent. accuracy at the rate of two in three minutes.

Unless we know exactly what we are trying to teach, we cannot expect to teach efficiently and cannot expect mastery.

2. The second step of the Winnetka technique is the preparation of complete diagnostic tests to cover each of the definitely specified objectives. A long division test, for instance, would include each of the difficulties cited above each by itself. A history test would include every fact (in the unit tested) which the child was expected to master—not in vague terms but in the type of question (completion or multiple choice) to which there is only one possible right answer, so that the teacher will know definitely what facts the child has mastered.

We do not grade these tests, in the ordinary sense. We use them to discover the child's weak points, and then refer him to the appropriate remedial work. When he has done this he is retested with another form of the same test, again covering *all* the things we want to be sure he knows.

Children take these tests individually whenever they are ready for them. It makes no difference if a child tells another what the test contains. We not only let all the children know what they are going to be tested upon, but give them practice tests, by which they are expected to determine in advance whether they are ready for the real test. This is possible because the tests are all complete, rather than mere attempts to get samples of the child's knowledge; if, therefore, a child studies what he is to be tested on, he is doing exactly what we want him to do.

The tests entirely replace recitations and other examinations. There are, of course, review tests from time to time. In every case each child must ultimately make a perfect score on each test.

3. Text books must be made self-instructive and self-corrective. Class presentation of subject matter is clumsy and inefficient. Children cannot learn effectively by the lecture system. Even teaching through skilful questioning either wastes the time of the brighter children or goes over the heads of the duller ones.

The materials of instruction must be so made that the child is led from step to step gradually, with adequate practice on each step. Adequate practice implies that some children will need much and others little. This is the antithesis of the plan which makes the bright child do extra practice work, and gives the dull child a meagre minimum.

Most text books of to-day are *text* books—expecting the teacher to develop the text. We need instruction books that will be written directly to the child.

Consequently, much of our time and energy in Winnetka, following along the lines laid down by the late Frederic Burk, of the San Francisco State Teachers College, has been devoted to the preparation of such materials of instruction, some of which we are now beginning to publish. Besides being as nearly self-instructive as we can make them, they are largely self-corrective, to relieve the teacher of much daily correcting of children's work.

Until such time as self-instructive books and materials are generally available (Jessie Mackinder in Chelsea has made some ingenious primary materials available to British teachers—we use some of them even in Winnetka) the best makeshift is to use some such supplemental materials as Dalton Plan assignments. With such assignments the older children, particularly, can often get much individual work from traditional text books.

The real solution, however, lies in specially prepared self-instructive materials and books.

When these three steps are taken—definite achievement goals specifically stated; complete diagnostic tests; self-instructive, self-corrective materials and books—the class lockstep may, and will, be broken. Pupils will progress from one unit to the next as individuals, never leaving a unit until it is mastered, never held back by slower members of the class. The teacher will move about among the children, inspiring, stimulating, urging, explaining—a helper ardently sought after rather than a task-master to be evaded. A small group here and there may happen to need the same help at the

same time and may get some group explanation. But basically the instruction and progress will be individual.

In Winnetka we have found that a teacher—*with self-instructive materials*—can handle moderately large classes on this individual basis. We have not tried classes above 38. A nearby city (Racine, Wisconsin), however, has tried it successfully with classes of 40 to 45. Certainly the larger the class the greater the need for self-instructive materials and diagnostic tests.

The Commonwealth Fund of New York recently financed, at our request, a year's running survey of the results of the Winnetka technique of individual instruction,* involving a comparison with a public school system in an adjoining suburb, with a well-known private experimental school, and with the laboratory school of a large university. The results of some 28,000 tests show that on the whole, in the subjects tested, Winnetka children had somewhat greater efficiency than those in any of the other schools, and that more time was given in Winnetka than in the other schools to non-academic, creative and group activities.

The Winnetka technique of individual instruction clears the way for the activities which we consider more important, in many ways, than the facts and skills. Individual mastery of facts and skills, alone, would be a mechanical thing. It would tend to crystallize society. But in Winnetka they are balanced by a programme of activities designed to awaken creative and social life in the child.

About half the morning and half the afternoon, on the average, are given to group and creative activities. These activities do not have instruction as their purpose. They are entirely freed from the handicap of trying to teach facts and skills. They may make use of facts and skills which the children have learned and they may *incidentally* throw light upon the need for learning further facts and skills. But their primary purpose is quite different from the purpose of the individual work.

Evolution is wholly dependent on variation. Unless, therefore, children are encouraged to vary, we cannot expect progress. Consequently, self-expression and creative work are of primary necessity in education. We attempt to give both the necessary stimulus and the necessary opportunity for such activity.

Too great stress, however, upon the individual development of each child along his own special lines would tend towards individualism, a separation of the interests of one from another, a sort of egoism, were it not balanced by training in the social values of one's individual specialities. A wise old Indian swami used to begin all his letters with the admonition, "Remember that in the world's good is your own and in yours, the world's."

This is exactly the balance we are striving to achieve. Each child must be brought to realize that human progress depends upon his developing his own abilities, but that his own development depends upon that of mankind in general.

This sounds abstract and far removed from the life of the child. As a matter of fact, however, even in the kindergarten there is opportunity for bringing home to the child his dependence upon the group and the group's dependence upon him.

The technique of the group and creative activities is necessarily less definite than that of the individual mastery of facts and skills. In the latter we are seeking for uniformity—we don't want originality in spelling or in arithmetic or in the location of a city. In the group and creative activities on the other hand we do want originality and we must therefore provide much freedom. This precludes any rigid technique, any definite set programme of activities.

On the other hand creative work and self-expression are not spontaneously generated. They are the particularized

* *Results of Practical Experiments in Fitting Schools to Individuals—A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools.* Public-School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, $1.50.

response of the individual to certain stimuli. The furnishing of these stimuli is therefore an important function of the teacher and the school. Some organization of the group and creative activities, some material on which the child's creative abilities can work, is necessary.

In general we find in the social sciences a basis for much of our group and creative work. History and geography are, with us, combined in a single subject—man's life on the earth, involving the influence of the environment upon man and of man upon his environment. While there is a certain amount of factual material to be learned in connection with social science, there is also a wealth of colour material which may be used as the basis for correlated activities of many sorts. Music, art, dramatics, discussions, physical education activities—all may be brought into play in relation to some topic which children are studying in social science. In order to make this possible, children begin each new topic in social science as a group, rather than individually. They then do their reading and get their basic facts as individuals, completing at different times, but not beginning the next unit until the rest are ready. Any surplus time may be used for the more purely individualized work such as reading, writing, spelling, formal language, etc.

May I illustrate this combination of the various departments for giving opportunity for group and creative work related to social science? The children to-day in a certain fifth grade room (ten-year olds) are having a Roman day. They have been reading about Rome, talking about Rome, decorating their room with pictures of Rome, playing Roman games in the playground, singing songs with Latin words, learning something about Roman music and art and architecture, dramatizing bits of Roman history, for weeks. To-day, as a climax, they are pretending that they are Romans. One of my own children, who happens to be in this group, climbed into bed with her mother early this morning and wanted to know whether Romans used butter on their bread, "Because," she said, "I have to take a lunch to-day that will be as nearly like a Roman lunch as I can make it. I am going to take honey and olives and dates because I know the Romans had those, but I don't know whether they had butter."

In the course of their work on Rome these children have had endless opportunities for creative work. They have written their own little plays. They have designed and made their own togas. They have built a Colosseum on the sand table. They have made chariots in the shop and had chariot races with children as horses, on the playground. They have worked and played together and through their work and play have learned to create and co-operate.

Our creative and group activities are not confined, however, to those things which correlate with social science. We have self-governing assemblies, we have art and music and team games in the playground, which are quite independent of social science. We have shop work, often as an end in itself. Indeed we use every possible avenue to give children the stimulus and the opportunity for creative work and social development.

In order to facilitate flexibility of programme, the inter-relation of subjects, where this inter-relation is natural, the throwing of light upon individual work through the social, and the making use of the individual work in group activities, we avoid departmentalization until children reach the junior high school. Children in the first six grades are with the same teacher all through the day and as far as possible stay with the same teacher for two years at a time. We want each teacher to know her children intimately and to be able to adapt the work to their individual needs and capacities. This we feel is more readily attained when the children are continuously with one teacher than when they move from classroom to classroom.

In the junior high school the adolescent children are beginning to differentiate and specialize. Here, therefore, there is departmentalization with a wide

range of electives and special courses. The balance between group and creative activities on the one hand and individual mastery of facts and skills on the other is still maintained, but instead of all the children entering into the same group activities they are given wide election in the types of activities in which they are to participate.

Such, in general, is the present organization of the Winnetka Schools. We have much yet to learn. We are carrying on many research activities. We are modifying and improving the details of our technique. We are revising our instruction materials and tests. We are enriching the opportunities for creative and group work.

To a greater and greater degree we find ourselves able to give children individual mastery of those facts and skills which they will need as adults, and through doing this more efficiently than it is ordinarily done, through handling this work on an individual rather than a class basis, we are able to provide for group and creative activities which we hope will tend to develop each child to his own fullest capacity and train him in the wise use of his talents for the benefit of mankind.

The Progressive Education Association

By Gertrude Hartman

(Editor of Progressive Education)

READERS of the *New Era* may be interested in knowing something about the Progressive Education Association, which is doing work in America similar to that done by the New Education Fellowship in Europe. As you no doubt know, with us as with you, a new spirit full of hope for the world is stirring in education. The last quarter of the century has witnessed tremendous changes; in no time in the history of education has there been such widespread interest in its aims and basic principles. The great advance in the sciences of biology, psychology, and sociology have given us a whole new scientific point of view with regard to the nature and needs of Childhood, and this in turn is revolutionizing our educational technique. This new knowledge makes us realize that new methods based upon inquiry, experimentation, and proof must replace the traditional methods based upon nothing but authority and opinion.

The Laboratory School established at the University of Chicago by Professor John Dewey in 1896 was the first important attempt to demonstrate the new methods. Readers who are interested will find accounts of the work of the school in Dr. Dewey's book *School and Society*. It is upon the epoch-making work of Professor Dewey, more than upon that of any other one person, that the whole new educational movement in the United States is based. Since the early days of his experiment the number of schools of the new type has increased by leaps and bounds. They are now dotted all over the United States from Maine to Florida, and from New York to California, all at work blazing new trails in working out new educational ideas. These schools represent a great variety of conditions and methods ranging all the way from such large and nationally known schools as the Francis W. Parker School in Chicago and the Lincoln School in New York to tiny schools unknown outside of their local communities. Such schools are at once a confirmation of our faith and a prophesy. They herald the coming of the new day when the enriched educational opportunities now granted to

a few scattered groups of children will be available for all the children of the land. Constructive educators are at work all over the country introducing new methods into the public school systems of our large cities. The Winnetka School system under the able leadership of Dr. Carleton Washburne is a well-known example of one type of new work being carried on in the public school field. There are many other types, for it must be understood that there is not any *one* method but *many* interpretations of the new philosophy.

Many of these new schools have been founded by co-operating groups of parents who feel that there is something vitally wrong with the old education which attempts to fit all children into an identical curriculum. They have seen that many children come from such schools with no love of learning, no urge for the further acquisition of knowledge, little of that practical experience in social living that serves as a foundation for intelligent citizenship, and with physical and character development far below the standard essential to their own happiness and the community good. They have desired a type of education which provides greater opportunity for the individual abilities and gifts of their children. An important part of the impetus to the new school movement has come from such parents. Indeed it is becoming more and more apparent that the new educational philosophy can never be converted into a practical reality without intelligent understanding and active co-operation on the part of parents and the lay public in general.

The foregoing brief summary will perhaps suffice to show that this new movement has sprung from many different sources and is widespread in its scope. It was with the idea of uniting and co-ordinating these separate and scattered sources that a small group of forward looking people met in Washington during the winter of 1918 under the leadership of Mr. Stanwood Cobb. In 1919 the Progressive Education Association was formally organized with Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, as honorary president, thus placing the benefits of organization behind the power of the idea.

The aim of the Association is not necessarily to advocate or be special pleaders for any one of the advance movements in education, but rather to be a clearing-house by means of which all the new ideals, principles and practices may be given opportunity for public hearing. In other words the Association commits itself not to any one particular form of education but to progress in education in all its forms. There are however certain broad general principles which appear to be basic. These have been formulated as follows:—

I. **Freedom to Develop Naturally.**
The conduct of the pupil should be governed by himself according to the social needs of his community, rather than by arbitrary laws. Full opportunity for initiative and self-expression should be provided, together with an environment rich in interesting material that is available for the free use of every pupil.

II. **Interest, the Motive of All Work.**
Interest should be satisfied and developed through: (1) Direct and indirect contact with the world and its activities, and use of the experience thus gained. (2) Application of knowledge gained, and correlation between different subjects. (3) The consciousness of Achievement.

III. **The Teacher a Guide, not a Taskmaster.**
It is essential that teachers should believe in the aims and general principles of Progressive Education and they should have latitude for the development of initiative and originality.

Progressive teachers will encourage the use of all the

senses, training the pupils in both observation and judgment; and instead of hearing recitations only, will spend most of the time teaching how to use various sources of information, including life activities as well as books; how to reason about the information thus acquired; and how to express forcefully and logically the conclusions reached.

Ideal teaching conditions demand that classes be small, especially in the elementary school years.

IV. **Scientific Study of Pupil Development.**

School records should not be confined to the marks given by the teachers to show the advancement of the pupils in their study of subjects, but should also include both objective and subjective reports on those physical, mental, moral and social characteristics which affect both school and adult life, and which can be influenced by the school and the home. Such records should be used as a guide for the treatment of each pupil, and should also serve to focus the attention of the teacher on the all-important work of development rather than on simply teaching subject-matter.

V. **Greater Attention to all that Affects the Child's Physical Development.**

One of the first considerations of Progressive Education is the health of the pupils. Much more room in which to move about, better light and air, clean and well ventilated buildings, easier access to the out-of-doors and greater use of it, are all necessary. There should be frequent use of adequate playgrounds. The teachers should observe closely the physical conditions of each pupil and, in co-operation with the home, making abounding health the first objective of childhood.

VI. **Co-operation Between School and Home to Meet the Needs of Child Life.**

The school should provide, with the home, as much as is possible of all that the natural interests and activities of the child demand, especially during the elementary school years. These conditions can come about only through intelligent co-operation between parents and teachers.

VII. **The Progressive School a Leader in Educational Movements.**

The Progressive School should be a leader in educational movements. It should be a laboratory where new ideas, if worthy, meet encouragement; where tradition alone does not rule, but the best of the past is leavened with the discoveries of to-day, and the result is freely added to the sum of educational knowledge.

In April, 1924, the Association bega the publication of a quarterly magazine which should contain the concrete material and actual news of the progressive movement. Each issue is devoted for the most part to a discussion of some one of the newer phases of education. The articles are authoritative, being written by people doing significant work in various fields. They are however well written and readable rather than technical in character and designed to be of interest to the lay reader as well as to the student of education.

In addition to the main articles there are in each issue news of new experiments and of outstanding educational events, a department of foreign notes telling of significant developments in other parts of the world and reviews of books and brief

digests of magazine articles dealing with progressive phases of education. In general, the aim is to report and interpret whatever is new, interesting, and stimulating in the work of the men and women who are endeavouring to free the schools from the shackles of old conventions and to push ahead into a new era.

Every year the members of the Association and all others interested meet together in conference to exchange ideas and experiences and to feel the encouragement and refreshment of spirit that comes from fellowship with those working in a common cause. Each year has seen a great increase in the number of people attending these conferences. At the last convention held recently in Boston there was an average daily attendance of about two thousand persons. Among the speakers were several from foreign countries, among whom we were happy to number the editor of the *New Era*, who gave us an inspiring message of unity and hope. Those who wish to know more in detail of this convention will find a full account of the addresses in the July number of Progressive Education, a subscription blank to which is included in this issue of the *New Era*.

The hope was expressed at the Convention that the New Education Fellowship and the Progressive Education Association could work together in greater unity as instruments in a great world-wide movement on behalf of a happier childhood. On our side of the ocean we hope that you will help us by sharing with us your experiences and successes in attacking your problems, and on the other hand we hope that you may find value and suggestiveness in the work that we are accomplishing here.

A MESSAGE FROM THE PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, U.S.A., TO THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP.

Finding ourselves in sympathy with the Principles and Aims of the New Education Fellowship, we wish to express our good will to that organization. In order that we may be in a position to co-operate with them, we hereby appoint a committee of three. This committee is appointed with authority to act.

John Dewey's Influence on Education

By E. Clapp

(*Principal of Rosemary Junior School, Assistant to John Dewey*)

THE story of educational practice and theory in this country is not told until its origin in the philosophy of John Dewey is revealed. It has been my privilege to work with Professor Dewey for periods that cover almost twenty years. In the last twenty-five years those of us who have been working in education have seen the practice, and then the theory, of education radically altered by the thinking of Professor Dewey. I am not forgetting the other contributory causes. Indeed, if it were not for these, if it were not for the fact that conditions required and supported these changes, the results of this reconstruction of educational philosophy might have been delayed past our generation.

I believe that Professor Dewey's thought has vitally affected education in America. What it has in the course of the last twenty years radically changed is *the mental disposition* of the people engaged in education. I would not need to limit it to the field of education, but I am here speaking of the activity I know best. I find when I think over the situation that in spite of the scores and hundreds, perhaps thousands, of students who have carried forth from their study with Professor Dewey a new point of view which they have, in turn, communicated to their own teachers and pupils, and in addition to the many hundreds who constantly seek him out for conference and advice, the changes which have emanated from him seem to have been brought about through minds which have been quickened by their contacts with him. I think it would hardly be too much to state that all of the people in education who are doing anything significant have consciously or unconsciously been freed to their own creative thought by means of the change in the philosophic point of view which he has made possible.

In the first decade of this century the philosophical alternatives were absolute idealism and neo-realism. The then new incursions of the pragmatists were hotly contested. I suppose nothing is harder to recapture than the realization of a difficulty which has been overcome, and the sense of the importance of its conquest. But to those of us who lived through the issue, the heat of the struggle and the thrill of the conquest are still recent and real. I find few students even of philosophy to-day who are aware of how recently the distinctions of inner and outer, subject and object, mind and matter, the individual and society, were irreconcilable and who know that it was primarily the work of Professor Dewey that eliminated the barrier of these fixed distinctions and substituted for them a conception of a working distinction of reflective analysis.

It seemed in 1912 as if with this achievement Dewey might consider his life work complete, but it was after this that he did his extensive work in education in the East, that he published his simply worded volume that puts forth a new interpretation of the history of philosophy, that he published his several books and essays on science, that he contributed his philosophy of law, that he made his psychological analysis of human nature and conduct which is destined to indicate the approach and line of investigation on which we have as yet barely entered, and that in his book on *Experience and Nature* he gave mature form to the philosophy which he had conceived some fifteen years before.

How to give account of all that has transpired is the problem: The doctrine

of interest and effort, the enacting of his educational faith in the practices of the school in Chicago with all its wealth of suggestion and material in the use of subject matter and the arts, the distinction between the psychological and the logical, between training and education, the interpretation of the individual within his environment and of his ethical development within a normal social group, the illustration which the school afforded of the kinds of activities that give an opportunity for the child's development and for the development of these. One calls to mind the substitution for scholastic logic of logical thinking, and the analysis of the reflective process; one appreciates the revelation of the social character of thought and language, and the emphasis upon the social requirements of all experiencing. We can here no more than name his whole conception of means and end,of the instrumental character of facts and ideas in the solution of problems. It is hard in so brief a survey to bring out the explosive, far-reaching effects of a conception of the reflective process that connects thinking with finding the way out of real difficulties, and that links it with the function of creative imagination. I know no way of foretelling the ultimate outcome of his recent psychological analysis of the individual in terms of life experiences.

I turn from this enumeration to suggest some of the features of education to-day which proclaim their indebtedness to him. Year by year there seems to be little, if any, progress made, but the changes over the period of the last twenty-four years have, as a matter of fact, been very radical and far-reaching. They have taken place in the point of view, in the purposes and interests of education. And the practices that have also altered greatly have followed from these different motives. Twenty-four years ago in all but a few isolated instances, training was, it was held, education's aim—"a well disciplined mind." In the more liberal this idea was stretched to include "a sound mind in a sound body." The newest practice then in vogue was that of the Socratic method of question and answer, and the device-minded had many pleasant customs of "interesting the children." Here and there, of course, one found a teacher of wisdom and wide vision whose plans and practices were a law unto herself. College graduates re-taught to high school students what they had just learned themselves and the teaching in the elementary school was left to people who naturally loved children. Into this situation in education Professor Dewey's own school came as an incredible miracle. Some of us still remember the glamour and excitement that attended reports of its practices. When in 1907, after four years of experiment in teaching, I went to Columbia, I came under Dewey, who had newly arrived from Chicago University. I had gone to Columbia to continue studies in language and literature and was taking courses in philosophy the better to understand what were the ideas of life and the universe in the different ages of man so that I could more fully realize and appreciate their expression in literature. And very unexpectedly I found myself introduced by Dewey to a universe of such depth and scope that it embraced language and literature and all other enterprises of the human spirit. Professor Dewey, among other things, is first and always one of the greatest of living scholars.

Who can say how the modern movement in education came about? Undoubtedly, it was stimulated by the revolutionizing discoveries of science, fostered by the idealistic social interest of the intellectual liberals, and helped on its way by the cheerful and uninstructed labours of the younger group in education, guided and encouraged by the few older teachers of vision.

Like all growths that are sound and natural, it developed and gained in its functional inter-relationships. Yet in saying this I cannot tell at this date whether it was not we whose understanding deepened. I can recall our first acquaintance mentally with the idea of

learning by living, of the relations of work and play, and with the conception of activity. I can thrill again to the idea of freedom, of respect for the individual. I can glimpse anew the vision of the arts as resources. I can experience the immeasurable intellectual relief at the restatement of the problem of knowledge with which we were all then so much concerned. And I can respond with the somewhat vague pleasure we felt at hearing of the relations of education and science. We acted upon these ideas as we understood them, observed and tested them in use, reformed and revalued them, and lived them. Thus we, and education with us, slowly grew into a more vital experiencing. Still Professor Dewey's own thought moves forward. We are, I estimate, about fifteen years behind him. Education is just digesting *Democracy and Education*. Some ten or fifteen years from now we shall perhaps be seeing the meanings and implications of *Experience and Nature*.

If modern education in America has, even to a small extent, been able to move forward it is due to one fact about the philosophy of experience formulated by Dewey. Everyone who has come into direct personal contact with Professor Dewey's own thinking will recognize how intrinsically true it is of his philosophy that it takes into account all the factors in a situation, and then discriminates and focuses upon the ones that have the more assured significance. This has enabled it to take as its ideal the recognition of all sincere proposals and experiments, however one-sided, and the adoption always tentatively of those that seem to embody the most significant factors. So personally I hold that the growth and success in this country of the principles of the Progressive Education Association are not accidental, or even the result of the decision of its founders merely, but due to the fact that they express the practice of this philosophy.

Where America does not show the effect of this philosophy is in its emphasis on devices, on educational book-keeping and accounts, and in any spirit it manifests of proprietorship of ideas. By its very nature philosophy of experience is tentative, subject to constant change and development, never finished, always learning, uncertain of results, certain only in vision.

One of Professor Dewey's unique contributions has been to help us to envisage the child in his relation to the rest of his world. Even the people who know well certain features of the philosophy of experience do not realize that implicit in it is a psychology of the individual which is almost wholly new and different from either the old faculty psychology, in which my generation was brought up, or from the current physiological description or psychical romance of to-day. I am hopeful that Professor Dewey may explicitly state and publish this. He has, of course, implied it in all of his recent books. When this is clear to our comprehension we shall, I think, see that it affords a basis that is new and releasing for a discrimination between what is individual and what is generically human.

(*Owing to lack of space this article has had to be reduced to one-third of its original length. The author had no opportunity for revision.*—EDITOR.)

Higher Professional Study in American Education

By William Heard Kilpatrick

(*Professor of the Philosophy of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University*)

Two features of American education stand out above the rest. One is the scheme of free universal education including both primary (elementary) and secondary schools, and extending (with important limitations, however) into the field of higher education. The magnitude of this undertaking and the hold it has on the country is a general matter of discussion by the student of American education. The second feature is newer and has been less often noted. I refer to the university study of education and its many connections with the public school system referred to above.

The better universities in this country, with the single exception of Princeton I believe, make definite provision for the graduate study of education. Many, including especially the state universities, have even larger provision for undergraduate work along this line, but this parallels training college work the world over and is not the feature to which attention is here called.

The noteworthy features in this university study of education will perhaps best appear from a study of the leading institution of the country in this field. I refer to Teachers College of New York City. The connection of the writer with this institution and the danger of consequent partiality recalls a story of our World's Fair of 1893. A countryman visiting the Fair entered upon the Midway and approached one of the side-shows just as the barker for this show was coming out to begin his contortionate praising. The countryman listened with growing wonder till finally a gleam of intelligence broke, and approaching the barker he said, "Look here, I believe you are interested in this show." I am interested in this show, I must admit, but I shall try to keep my appraisal within the bounds of fact.

What is Teachers College? Speaking most generally, Teachers College is an instance of education conscious of itself, of more specifically American education trying in democratic fashion to control its own evolution. In Teachers College, as it seems to me, the education of America is indeed conscious of itself and is indeed controlling in very appreciable degree the evolution of American education. The process is properly called democratic because the influence which Teachers College and other like institutions exercise over American education is not the influence of external authority, whether of state or of church. No school or school man anywhere is in any whit bound by authority to follow the teachings of these institutions. Yet it may well be doubted if there is another single force in this country which more widely or more deeply affects our educational theory and practice.

More specifically still, Teachers College is an institution, vigorous, firmly settled, much alive. Three lines of work characterize it: research in almost all lines of education, the preparation of teachers of education, and the professional preparation of higher officials and administrators. Teachers College is not, as its name perhaps implies and as most of my foreign friends at first conceive it, a big training college for teachers of children. It does not prepare teachers of children but teachers of teachers. It is a peculiar combination of what is almost a university in itself with a professional training college for higher teachers and officials. If aim and degree be combined, it is truly unique. The two most striking and important aspects of the institution are its graduate work and its summer school. In the graduate school are to be found two thousand graduate students, already experienced in school matters, seeking

more extended preparation for yet higher positions. In the summer school is possible an extended and serious study of education without the necessity of giving up one's regular position. The graduate school of education and this type of summer school, while not peculiar to Teachers College, are, in degree at least, peculiar to the United States. An audience of London head teachers to whom I explained our summer school was greatly stirred to learn on the one hand of the open door to promotion found in American education, and on the other of the possibility of extended study for promotion open to teachers in service without resignation from their positions.

It may not be out of place to digress for a moment in order to give honour to whom honour is due. The beginnings of what Teachers College has become were laid elsewhere. Research in education began probably in Germany, and was to be found specifically in America before the founding of Teachers College, especially at Chicago under Professor Dewey. The summer school as we now know it likewise had its significant origin at Chicago. The professional preparation of higher officials had slight beginnings before Teachers College in the work of Professors Hanus at Harvard and Whitney at Wisconsin. But it is to Dean Russell that America owes the fully developed research in education, with specific preparation for teachers of education. Speaking genetically, we may say that our development of educational administration as an object of university study is due on the one hand to Dean Russell's study in Germany and on the other hand to peculiar conditions in America. First under him and later under his direction the study of administration became strong here. In this Teachers College has been leader, more than first among equals.

How was it that Teachers College came into being? Why did such an institution arise in the United States? Why was it developed here in New York City? It arose in the United States, if my analysis be correct, by reason of the working of at least four factors. First, are certain psychologic dispositions. Frontier conditions, abundant nature, and the intermingling of cultures have built two characteristics in the American: he is practical in his thinking, and he is ready to change—he will try anything at least once. It is no accident that the pragmatic movement is pre-eminently American. The conditions named have demanded functional thought. We may pursue this further, for the point is significant and helps to make manifest the characteristic attitude of Teachers College. Let us contrast two schools of psychology, that of Professor Titchener, for so long and so honourably associated with Cornell, and that of Professor Thorndike, developed here with us. Professor Titchener is in origin a Britisher, conservative of change. Both at Cambridge and at Cornell he has had a background of what seems to most of us a static philosophy. Thorndike, on the other hand, a disciple of James, represents the distinctive American tradition. Both Titchener and Thorndike are rigidly scientific; both have greatly developed their respective lines. But Titchener deals with a structural and static psychology. His especial study is that of mental states: "What is? How many distinctions can be made? What are the constituents?" He does not ask, "What of it? What are you going to do about it?" On the other hand, Thorndike is functional and dynamic. He is primarily concerned with such questions as "How comes it to be? How does it work? How can we change it?" Discussing this difference with an eminent psychologist of Great Britain, I said it seemed to me of value to have a psychology that could be put to work, but his reply was characteristic of an attitude that one meets over and over again in the older countries of Europe,—"We don't want a psychology that can be put to work." The first factor, then, that has entered into the making of Teachers College is our distinctive American mind, a

readiness for change and a wish to control the processes of change, accordingly a predilection for functional thinking.

A second factor that has entered into the making of Teachers College, perhaps the correlative of the preceding one, is a rapidly developing country with increasing wealth, increasing school attendance, and constantly outgrown facilities. These insistent new conditions have meant new schools to be made, new problems to be met, new curricula to be devised, new systems to be organized. In a way not true of the older countries we have been compelled, whether we would or not, to study practical problems growing out of educational systems ever changing to meet ever new conditions.

A third factor has been the multiplicity of cultural stocks. This factor, reinforced by the two preceding ones and by our determination to maintain a democracy, has set for our country a social problem such as no other nation has had to meet. We have been compelled to take serious thought of how we might overcome the disintegrating tendencies inherent in our individualism and aggravated by the diversity of nationalities coming to our country. This has meant a strong demand for a vital and effective social philosophy, with emphasis upon integration. It has proved most interesting to me to see our exiled Russian students stand almost aghast at the degree of social control advocated in American social philosophy, their philosophy in reaction to autocracy having become strongly individualistic. The demands made upon our American schools by this social problem of integration have been so insistent that educational theory has perforce become acutely conscious of the situation. No student of the development of American educational theory can fail to note the strength of this third factor in determining the study of education among us.

The fourth factor is typical of the immensity and great variety of our national life. America exhibits the greatest possible variety of school procedure. Forty-eight separate states mean forty-eight distinct systems. Our cities present well nigh innumerable subvarieties. Experiments of every kind abound, every conceivable variety of administrative device has been tried. Moreover we have long had in this country unusually enterprising politicians At every stage these have looked with longing eyes upon our schools. In order to protect itself against this voracious horde the school has been compelled to seek amid this bewildering variety the best possible types of organization and administration. The study of administration in its manifold phases has been inevitable.

It is, then, the co-operation of these four factors that has caused our country to surpass the rest of the world in the conscious study of education: a practically-minded people, we have been willing to try new things; we have faced rapidly developing conditions that were constantly setting new problems; we have faced perhaps the most insistent social problem the world has ever seen; and we have had available for study a unique variety of experiments in educational administration. Given such people facing these conditions, there must eventually have arisen an institution which should take for its mission the solving of the problems thus set.

But why should this necessary institution arise here in New York and in that little undergraduate teacher-training institution christened in 1893 "The Teachers College"? For during the first five years of its existence Teachers College was a small undergraduate school especially devoted to manual training and domestic science. It was given to this old Teachers College to become the new Teachers College because, first of all, it had a practical reforming attitude; second, it was connected with Columbia University; and third, it was located in New York City, the metropolis and Mecca for Americans. Being connected with Columbia University it had the advantages of the breadth and inspiration of a

great academic institution. But it enjoyed these advantages under the unique circumstance of an independent budget. With wise trustees and an independent budget it was possible to conceive and undertake new lines of endeavour without the necessity of converting the academic conservatism of the rest of the university. Everywhere else academic conservatives had been too powerful; here the independent budget flanked the fight. Wise trustees and an independent budget needed but the man to make the innovating institution great, and the man was found in Dean Russell, a man of knowledge and vision and tact. What we see and know is what he has done. These, then, are the conditions that have made Teachers College.

What now is the contribution of Teachers College? Speaking most generally, it is the institution itself, with its men engaged in research along every line pertaining to education. First some obvious lines, the history of education, educational psychology, the philosophy of education, educational sociology. Next a new and vigorously growing line of comparative education coupled with the special study of American education for the benefit of our ever increasing group of students from foreign lands (at the present 283 students from 50 countries). The most novel feature of the work to our foreign visitors is perhaps the professional preparation for almost every type of educational position in the country. Where the European training college prepares teachers to instruct children and youth, this instruction is preparing school officials for their specific duties. What in England are called head teachers, head masters, inspectors (of all sorts), heads of training colleges, masters of method in training colleges, and directors of education, each here finds one or more specific courses which treat the problems he will face with the best solutions yet worked out the country over for meeting such problems. Increasingly American practice expects such aspirant for such a position to prepare himself specifically for its duties by study in some university school of education.

Our various departments along these lines have arranged a body of digested experience and technique which is astounding to any one first learning of it. This is the most nearly unique contribution made by the institution to education. There is nothing like it to be found in any other country. The very conception of the university study of many of these problems is almost foreign to European consciousness.

A further most significant contribution is along the line of psychology and measurement. In the psychology of learning, with the statement of the laws governing the learning process and of the limitations upon the transfer of training, our schools of education have made contributions of tremendous significance to education. In the newer field of measurement and the application of tests and measurements to education, the contribution is even more outstanding, perhaps, than it is in the psychology of learning.

These, then, as I see it, are the three outstanding specific contributions which Teachers College has made—first, education as a serious university study; second, the subject of supervision and administration as a body of digested experience and technique; and third, the work in psychology and measurement.

What, now, is the significance of all this? What is its bearing on educational thought and practice? First consider the ever-increasing number of teachers and educational leaders going out from this institution and others like it, not only to all parts of our own country, but throughout the world. Increasingly is it true that Teachers College is the Mecca of those who would study education.

Probably more than 70,000 have taken courses here. It has been estimated that of the "trained" teachers in our country one out of every seven has studied with us, and that more than one-fourth of all the city superintendents in the United States have had work in our classes. It is indeed a host. Next consider the

broader vision, the bigger policies engaging the educational thought of this country. The part played by the schools of education in this is writ so large that he who runs may read. A third significance, seen greater in contrast with the older countries, is the possibility here and elsewhere in our country of promotion in the profession by the opportunities offered for study not only by the regular annual sessions but in a peculiar sense by the summer session. Abroad it is practically impossible for any one who begins as a teacher to rise to the higher ranks of administration. In this country that there shall be opportunity ahead is all but an instinctive demand. The schools of education make the realization of this opportunity not only possible but normal and proper. This is indeed one of democracy's open doors. Perhaps even more significant is the spread through our country of a higher professional equipment, a body of tested experience and thought brought together as a basis for reasoned criticism of educational plans and theories. The contrasting receptions given by this country and Great Britain in a certain recent case will illustrate what I mean. When the fame of a teacher of childhood was brought to these shores by one of America's past masters of promotion, there were many who expected her system to sweep the country. And so it might well have been, had not our psychologists (and psychology is more studied in America than in any other country on earth) already prepared a basis for criticism. The result was decisive. The bubble burst. This was in 1912. Imagine my surprise on going to England eight years later to hear Dr. Montessori proclaimed with all the enthusiasm sought here in 1912. Of British critics there were plenty and good ones too, but the ground had not been prepared. The basis of psychological criticism had not been sufficiently widespread and the exposure of the critics fell on deaf ears. Still another matter of significance is the building of a professional solidarity and *esprit de corps* upon a basis of professional study and interest. Too often has it been true, both in this country and abroad, that pecuniary well-being has been the pronounced factor in professional consciousness. Few things are more heartening than to see in our country the growth of a professional consciousness founded on a growing professional study. In forming this *esprit de corps* the higher institutions devoted to the study of education have had the greatest part. A further matter of significance is the growth in this country of a democratic control in matters educational and the honourable part that the schools of education have had in this. On the continent of Europe the control over the schools is in greatest measure governmental and highly centralized at that. So far as the schools are concerned, it is government from above. In this country, speaking nationally, the government has little influence. But the uniformity in educational thought and machinery throughout our forty-eight states shows the presence of an inner control, the proper control for a democracy. The presence of educational institutions sufficiently strong and influential to criticize effectually state and national governmental action in matters educational is of great significance for the democratic future of our country. With the generally increasing tendencies towards centralization, the future, without some such corrective force as this, might well look dark. In these many respects does the work of the graduate schools of education take on significance.

The Dalton Plan in an American Tax-supported Secondary School

By Lucy L. W. Wilson

(Principal of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls)

In spite of the great development, all over the United States, of Catholic-supported parochial and high schools, in spite of the increasing variety and numbers of other private schools, nevertheless only an eighth of our school population is in such schools. A generation ago, a third of the school children were in privately supported schools; now, seven-eighths of them are in the tax-supported public schools.

Relatively, the greatest increase in numbers, in this last generation, has been in the pupilage of secondary schools. Tax-supported high schools are now accessible to almost all the youth of the nation. Moreover, we have been successful in reducing failure and in keeping the children in these schools beyond our wildest dreams. The hare has been caught. What next?

It is the dominance of free over private education, together with an enormous enrolment of all the children of all the people that has been largely both the occasion and the opportunity for a science of education. In addition, we have succeeded in developing a scientific attitude towards educational problems, even on the part of many laymen. On the other hand, these same factors, involving, as they do, a large pupil-load per teacher and large numbers of children under a single roof, have taken the courage to experiment away from many of the teachers, including, also, the supervisory bodies. Even those who are willing to try anything once, too often lack the ability to take account of experiments that apparently, or really, do not succeed, learning from their mistakes. Unfortunately, one is in good enough company, sitting back, saying, "Admirable in a private school, with small classes, but with our unselected groups, and in our large classes, quite impossible."

In the long run, however, even educational fundamentalism is self-destructive. Experimentation is safer than too great caution. In this spirit, the faculty of the South Philadelphia High School, after a year of discussion, with considerable experimentation by individual members, voted almost unanimously to try out the Dalton Plan. For two years, now, we have been "carrying on" with ever mounting enthusiasm and constantly increasing skill.

In few high schools in the country are conditions more difficult. Two thousand children and eighty-four teachers were and still are housed in forty class rooms. However, a large assembly room, a study hall, and a small gymnasium ease the situation a little. The plan of the building and most of the furniture is inadequate and out of date. Seventy-five per cent. of the children, representing, all told, some twenty-six nationalities, speak another language than English in their homes. Most of them have intellectual ability and enthusiasm, but numbers of them—three per cent. at least—have not the mentality successfully to complete a four years' high school course. This is partly due to the effort, lower down, to reduce failure and to keep the children in school. For many years we, in our turn, have been trying to attain these same aims, but without lowering standards, by segregating the pupils into Rapid and Slow progress classes, on the basis of intelligence and achievement tests, plus the teachers' judgment. In addition, each term, we segregate out from the regular classes those, who, in spite of real effort, cannot

successfully complete their work, even at a slower rate of speed. We then give them, for a year, intellectual pabulum to fit their needs and their digestion. They will never graduate, it is true, but, almost in the twinkling of an eye, instead of failures, they become happy and helpful school citizens, and may be, in time, useful instead of dangerous members of the larger community.

Even more important than their happiness and relative success is the advantage to those of fair to superior abilities of a return to higher standards.

We use the Dalton Plan with all our students, from those in the One Year Extension Class, described above, through both Slow and Rapid progress classes, to a small group of honour students (from five to ten per cent. of the senior class). The application, of course, is quite different. To all are given assignments. The extension class has liberty only within the class room; the Slow and Rapid progress students, within the school, subject to some obligatory conferences in each subject and some quasi-social engagements; to the honour students, entire freedom with complete responsibility.

The very real success of the Dalton Plan in a school like South Philadelphia —large, complex, inadequately housed— indicates that it is not a mere "method" that may work under favourable conditions—in a small school, for example, with superior children, a large faculty, small classes—but that it is a "plan," resting on basically sound educational principles that can be applied to meet widely different demands.

These principles, as we see them, are:

I. **Individualized instruction,** but **in a socialized environment,** permitting and encouraging each child to work to capacity, co-operatively, in spite of the individual differences, of which, now-a-days, we are so intensely conscious.

II. **Freedom,** but with **stabilizing responsibility,** permitting and encouraging each child to reach his own goal, at his own speed, and in his own time.

The tools that have helped us most in applying these conditions are:

A. Assignments for units of work, individualized, quantitatively and qualitatively, by adding several electives, permitting a wide choice in maximum work.

B. Definite provision, usually in the assignment itself, for group work, specialized recitations, dramatization, and the like.

C. Tentative time budgeting of school time, a twenty-four hour day, a week.

D. Elastic individual time tables.

E. Individualized "guidance" by expert members of the staff—three of them, all with special fitness and training for this complex and difficult duty. These counsellors constantly complement and supplement the work of the class and home-room teachers.

What is the *sine qua non* for the successful application of the Dalton Plan do you ask? As in every other educational experiment, **the hearty co-operation of the teachers.** Intelligence, a professional attitude toward work, a knowledge of subject matter, of child psychology, together with teaching technique, are the bases on which such co-operation must rest. These same factors are also most important in judging the success and the value of the experiment.

From our various experiences, I am going to indicate a dozen milestones along a roadway leading finally to individualized teaching, in a social environment, with responsible freedom—in brief, the right application of the Dalton Plan to varying conditions:

1. **Presentation of the Plan** by the group leader (Superintendent, High School Principal, Department Head), with especial emphasis on its **objectives.** As a matter of fact, it was first presented to our faculty by one of its members who first had seen it in successful operation in a New York Trade School.

2. **Open Forum** on the Dalton Plan: **Restatement of the objectives,** discussion

of each in turn, reaffirming their universality, with emphasis on the fact that the Plan is merely a vehicle in which to reach the goal.

3. **Discovery,** within the faculty, **of teachers with vision and courage** who wish to embark on the adventure. **Opportunity** for such teachers **to Daltonize within the classroom.**

4. **The critical study**, by these adventurers, **of assignments** made by other teachers, whether within or without the school.

5. **Preparation of an assignment** (dated at least a month ahead) to fit the needs of a particular class under the direction of a particular teacher. May I suggest here, that the teacher, or teachers, preparing such an assignment need to remember the following:

A. It takes more time to climb down a mountain side, and then up, than to fly from peak to peak on the back of an eagle (the teacher). The minimum, therefore, for each unit of work should be a **real** minimum, that is, an amount of work that a fair student, working with reasonable diligence, may hope to complete, fully and successfully, within the time limit.

B. Maxima electives should be provided in connection with each unit, for the use of good and excellent students, an enrichment, rather than mere addition.

C. "Pivotal questions," in close sequence, are essential and valuable tools in the development of the minimum and of the electives.

D. Tried and proved devices such as topical outlines, little and frequent summaries, socialized recitations, dramatizations, and the like are no less important than before, and they may be made much more effective, through the assignment.

6. Definite provision for the **mechanical duplication** of the assignment so that each child can have her own.

7. After a month or more of experience, a programme of **open classes,** to induce visits from other teachers in the school.

8. Persistent, quiet efforts to **increase the number** of teachers who are willing to try out the experiment.

9. Brief, helpful **meetings with these teachers** so that each may have the opportunity to receive and to pass on his or her experiences.

10. An **Open Forum for all the faculty,** in which the adventurous leaders may present their results and be ready to answer questions and objections.

11. Open Forum in which the **Dalton Plan is restated, reaffirmed, and discussed.** If, at the conclusion of this meeting, by secret ballot, a large majority of the teachers vote to Daltonize the school, proceed fearlessly. There will be rocks ahead, but they will lead to other adventures, not to shipwrecks.

12. And then, with due apologies to Prof. Kilpatrick, the final crux: **is the subject matter intrinsic; are our activities purposeful; are we continuously re-making real living to ever higher and higher levels?**

English Correspondents Wanted

Schools wishing to arrange correspondence between their pupils and schools in other countries should apply to New Education Fellowship.

NOTES

An International Peace Month in France

During the whole of August people from all over the world will meet at the Chateau de Bierville, near Paris—people who believe that peace is first and foremost a moral question, and that only as an atmosphere of confidence and collaboration spreads in the world will peace become stable and international understanding effective. Particulars from the Secretary, 34, Boulevard Raspail, Paris, 7e.

Fourth International Summer School, Geneva

The Fourth International Summer School of the Save the Children Fund will be held at Geneva, 6th to 22nd August, under the presidency of M. André Oltramare. The lectures cover a wide range—such as the treatment of child delinquency, the need of fitting children to earn a satisfactory livelihood in later years, the best methods of international education. Particulars from 26, Gordon Street, Gordon Square, London.

World Conference

The next Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations will be held in Toronto, Canada, probably in July, 1927.

Shakespeare Festival—Permanent Camp

A Permanent Camp has been established in connection with the annual Shakespeare Festival (5th July to 11th September) at Stratford-on-Avon. Periods are allotted for the special use of Secondary and Elementary Schools. Special arrangements will be made to enable scholars to attend performances of Shakespeare's plays during the Festival, to visit places of interest and to carry out nature study. Full particulars from Major J. W. Marsden, Whytegates, St. Gregory's Road, Stratford-on-Avon (for Secondary School camps).

Montessori in India

A Montessori Society has been started in India at Shri Daxinamurti, Balmandir, Bhavnagar, of which the two secretaries are Messrs. G. B. Badhika and T. Modak.

Citizens Education Fellowship, Victoria

A Fellowship of those seeking social progress through education. An interesting series of lectures on the "Philosophy of Education" and on the "Psychology of Education" was arranged for the Spring to be followed in the winter by a series on "Comparative Education" by Mr. G. S. Browne, Vice-Principal of the Teachers' Training College. Members of the New Education Fellowship in Victoria should keep in touch with the work of its sister Fellowship. Information can be obtained from Mrs. Daisy Wunderly, 11, Mont Albert Road, Mont Albert, Victoria, Australia.

Jamaica

Will those interested in the New Education in Jamaica get into touch with Miss J. K. Gartshore, Jamaica High School for Girls, Half-Way Tree P.O.? Miss Gartshore would like to form a New Education Fellowship group in Jamaica for study and mutual help among teachers and parents.

Citizen House, Bath

A Summer School for Play Production will be held at Citizen House, Bath, from August 21st to September 10th. This course is especially designed for members of educational bodies, producers of dramatic groups, etc. Both the indoor and outdoor theatres of Citizen House will be available for rehearsal, and the students will actually produce plays themselves under expert leadership, making all properties, designing scenes, etc. Practical work on the stage is thus afforded.

The extensive theatrical wardrobe of

Citizen House, Bath, comprising many thousands of beautiful costumes of all periods, is now open to all educational bodies on loan at very moderate charges to cover cost of upkeep. This is an inestimable boon to all play-producing schools and groups, who have often had their work restricted owing to expense. Curtains, properties, etc., are also available on loan. Full particulars may be obtained on application to the Hon. Secretary, Citizen House, Bath.

News from Fellowship Groups

SCOTLAND.—Miss Margaret McMillan, much to our regret, could not give her Scottish lectures planned for March, owing to illness, but her place was taken in Glasgow and Edinburgh by Miss Margaret Drummond, and in Falkirk by Miss Cruttwell, who also lectured in Perth, Dundee and Kirkcaldy on "Art Teaching," with exhibits from St. Christopher School, Frensham Heights, St. Leonard's School, St. Trinnean's, Edinburgh, Perth Academy, and Kirkcaldy High School. In May a tour was arranged for Mr. John Eades, who was first to visit Kirkcaldy, Dumfermline, Alloa, Ayr, and Greenock, breaking fresh ground in the last three places, but this unfortunately had to be cancelled at the last minute owing to train shortage. It is hoped however to carry out exactly the same tour next year.

A new New Education Fellowship has been started at Falkirk.

The Directors of Counties have interested themselves actively in the forthcoming Scottish number of the *New Era*, and have provided a considerable amount of information for it. Six Directors of Education are now full members of the Scottish Section of the New Education Fellowship.

BRISTOL.—The first quarterly meeting of the Bristol Branch was held on February 6th, at 6 p.m., at 4, Rodney Place, by invitation of Miss Wilson. Discussion was on suggestions in *The New Era* on "Re-creating the Teacher." At 7 o'clock the members adjourned to see the School performance of Benavente's *The Prince who learnt everything out of books*. At this meeting it was suggested that enquiry be made as to what it was possible to do in connection with moral welfare and venereal disease amongst children.

On March 13th an account was given of work done by the Acting Secretary of the Diocesan Moral Welfare Society of Bristol and of a Council School Clinic worker. In view of the great difficulty in dealing with the matter and the need for preventive education—which, however, seems impossible at the present state of public opinion—the meeting ended in a discussion on wise, private individual effort, and the *New Era* advice on the matter was referred to. It was however felt that private presentation is at present insufficient. It was decided to affiliate to the Bristol Branch of the British Federation of Youth, then recently formed, with the object of uniting Societies of Youth, or those specially interested in youth and its problems, in the pursuit of world peace.

On May 15th, at a drawing-room meeting by invitation of Mrs. Norman Brown, the Group listened to a lecture given by Miss E. C. Wilson, author of *An Experiment in Synthetic Education*, the subject being "Testing for Vocational Aptitude in Europe, America and this Country." Seventeen were present and an animated discussion followed. Four associates joined the group.

LEEDS.—During the last session the activity of this Group was confined to a series of public lectures on "Individual Work in Infant Schools" by Miss J. M. Mackinder, the well-known authority and lecturer on individual work, and Head Mistress of Marlborough Road School, Chelsea.

These lectures, held on Saturday mornings, were well attended and full of practical suggestions. Much interest was shown in the apparatus on view, and particularly in the "Chelsea Individual Reading Apparatus," of which Miss Mackinder is the originator.

Next session Leeds hopes to have Mrs. Ensor and a series of lectures on "The Dalton Plan."

PORTSMOUTH.—The Group was inaugurated in the early Summer of 1925 by an inspiring address from Mrs. Carol King. The Group seeks to make its meetings as recreative as possible. It has arranged demonstrations of the Annea Spong Greek Dancing by her pupil Miss Grace Guy, and of the Bret-Harte-Burton system of Physical Training and Rhythmic Breathing Exercises by Mr. Jack Burton. Our member Miss F. G. L. Saunders is always willing to lend her garden for meetings, so we have had some pleasant out-of-door gatherings. The Group, under Mrs. Lennox and Miss Townsend, took charge of the N.E.F. book stall at the Congress of the N.U.T. recently held in Portsmouth. Mrs. Lennox, who is local agent for the linguaphone, gave demonstrations of this method of learning languages, and the stall was quite a centre of interest at the Congress. Miss Grace Cruttwell has also given a lantern lecture on "Modern Methods in Art Teaching."

INDIA.—A section of the Fellowship is being formed in India in co-operation with the National University Graduates' Association. Members of the Fellowship in India will be entitled to use the Lending Library of the Association, which contains books on the new education. The books are sent by post to members residing in isolated places. Will all interested put themselves in touch with the Secretary, Mr. V. N. Sharma, National University Graduates' Association, Guindy Road, Adyar, Madras.

AUSTRALIA.—The New South Wales Group reports good work under the secretaryship of Miss M. Lamond. A big venture was taken in March in the form of a lecture, organized by the Group, on Sex Training. Mother Grundy had a few remarks to make as such a lecture had not been held in Sydney before. Several leading educationists of Sydney attended the meeting which passed off harmoniously, the speaker, Mrs. Piddington, gaining the confidence of the audience. The Rt. Rev. G. S. Arundale has also lectured for the Group.

A New School in Devon

In September a new educational venture will be started at Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon, an old Manorial Estate of 1,000 acres, including garden, farm and field, river and woodland, all of which offer the means of introducing children to a number of outdoor crafts, and provide surroundings for a natural and healthy life. The School will be an experiment. It is proposed to adopt the Project Method in all subjects, and projects will be roughly divided into two classes, the one predominantly manual, the other intellectual. Most of the projects will be carried on in groups. Co-operation will thus form the basis of school life. The School is intended at first for boys between the ages of 10 and 18, but a girls' department will be added as soon as accommodation is available. The capital with which the School is being founded is a gift. No profits will be made on the School. Fees will be about £120 per annum.

International Bureau of Education

(Geneva)

For the first time, on the 5th of May, 1926, a general report of the Secretariat on its activities during the first months of its existence was presented to the Committee of the B.I.E. The following is a brief summary:—

Circumstances have favoured the making of numerous connections: Professor Bovet in the United States, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten in Germany, Dr. Adolphe Ferrière in Italy, Miss Marie Butts in Geneva itself, have had many opportunities of making the Bureau known to a large number of influential persons, directors of schools, educational authorities, official people, pioneers of progressive education, professors of psychology and of educational science. The results have in general been extremely favourable; some useful information and advice have been given, which the Bureau will endeavour to put to the best possible use. This personal propaganda would have been still more extensive if Dr. Ferrière's tour in the Balkans, and the Moral Educational Congress at Rome had not been given up at the last moment.

The offices of the Bureau, at the J. J. Rousseau Institute in Geneva, have received many visitors from different countries. Miss Beryl Parker, Research Scholar of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, spent several days working in our library. Under the auspices of the International Bureau of Education, she gave a most interesting lecture on Progressive Education in the United States, and organised a little exhibition of photographs, teachers' reports, drawings, pupils' exercise books, etc., coming from the most advanced schools in the States.

The Bureau has sent out hundreds of circulars in French, English, German, Spanish, Italian and Esperanto; the Polish edition will come out shortly. Correspondence has established a link with institutions and educators in many different lands.

In addition to this work of organisation, the actual work of the Bureau has been resolutely tackled. Owing to the fact that it has the privilege of being in touch with well-known educationalists and institutions in the educational world, it has already received enquiries in widely different fields and coming from many different lands. Here are a few examples taken at random. From Poland, we have been asked for information on vocational guidance; from Belgium, on school organisation in Switzerland; also on games for teaching Latin; from France, on agricultural training in rural schools; on moral tests; on books of fiction for children; from Switzerland, on questions of heredity and the "problem child," etc., etc. Enquiries came from at least seventeen countries. Some of them necessitated considerable bibliographic research, and convinced us that a good reference Library, and a well-ordered collection of pamphlets and reviews, will be most useful. We have therefore, at the same time as we continued to collect information, consulted—on the application of the decimal index to the field of education—the principal educational libraries in Europe and in the United States. When our work in that line is more advanced we hope to be able to communicate interesting results to all concerned.

Other enquiries of vital interest for our Bureau have been set on foot and will, we hope, be published shortly in some form:—a calendar of Educational conferences in 1926; a list of schools and institutions particularly interesting for foreign teachers visiting the principal European countries (this list may grow

into a sort of educational "Baedecker"); also a list of societies organising correspondence between scholars of different lands.

The Bureau has received several requests for its collaboration in international undertakings, some of which it has accepted; one is in connection with the organising of a French Summer School by the International Union of Associations for the League of Nations. We are asked to make ourselves responsible for the programme of one or two days devoted especially to educationalists. We are arranging for lectures, debates, and one or two small exhibitions. From two different quarters, we have been asked to take an active interest in the educational cinematograph, new developments of which are in view. We are solicited also to collaborate in the establishment of an international collection of documents and games for teaching various branches. This will no doubt have to be preceded by a widespread enquiry on the needs of schools interested in progressive education. Finally, both Dr. Elisabeth Rotten and the Geneva office have been actively interested in tours, which are to bring teachers to Europe, in 1926 and 1927, from Egypt and the United States.

From the above, it will be seen that there is work in abundance for the Bureau. Its aim, the only reason for its existence, is to be of service to an ever-widening circle of educationalists. We shall end this first report of our activity by reminding our readers that the Bureau stands in need of the moral and financial support of all those who understand its aims, and by sending our warm thanks to those educationalists, in different countries, who have already helped us by their advice and their subscriptions, or by sending us valuable information. As our work develops, we shall have to appeal increasingly to the assistance of willing helpers in all regions of work. China, Japan, India, Australia, South Africa can help us quite as much as nearer countries.

Holiday Accommodation Wanted

We receive many requests from abroad for the addresses of private families (and guest houses) in which visitors from abroad can find friendly lodging during their stay in England. Usually our enquirers are seeking to improve their knowledge of the English language. We would be grateful if readers would send us addresses of families they know who receive paying guests from periods varying from a fortnight to six months. We are in special need of addresses in London, the Home Counties and at the sea.

We would also be glad to have similar addresses from our readers abroad for the assistance of our English members when visiting other countries.

Send to The Secretary, New Education Fellowship, 11, Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

the Tsars, and have started to build up their educational institutions anew.

Nearing is prompt to disclaim the thought that he regards the Soviet Union as an educational paradise

> Quite the reverse. It would be hard to find poorer equipment. . . . The Union is now short of 250,000 teachers. . . . Even if they had the teachers, they would have no classrooms in which to put them. . . . Soviet educational institutions are not a paradise. They are a battleground. On this battleground an entire people is fighting against ignorance, using all of the weapons that the modern educational world has invented and forged for the purpose, and, incidentally, inventing and developing some weapons of its own. . . . Educational *achievement* in the Soviet Union is as yet negligible. The struggle that is going on there to secure educational results is one of the most fascinating dramas I have ever witnessed . . . it will also be a fruitful source of educational knowledge and progress.

Nearing's book somewhat belies his own statement as to achievement. Is it not an achievement to permeate the whole educational system of a country with a new spirit? "There is but one revolution that avails," wrote Ibsen: "to revolutionize people's minds." The experimental methods of the new schools, which in Europe and America find little application outside a few special schools for children of the well-to-do and intellectual classes, are in Russia being broadcast for the masses.

The entire Soviet educational system is based on administrative and pedagogical self-government. One of the most important parts of the Soviet educational programme is the turning of science to social uses. Nearing includes some extremely interesting summaries of school programmes and curriculums admirably illustrating this point. Wide experimental work in subject matter and method is being undertaken; organization among the pupils, self-government, is part of the course of study. There is a perpetual linking of theory with practice. The child is no longer studied exclusively as an individual, but as a member of a social group. Those children who cannot function as part of a social group are termed "abnormal," and are given special attention apart from the group. Russia of the Soviets is trying to create a unified educational system that will meet the needs of the new kind of society they are trying to upbuild; it is endeavouring to raise and equip its citizens to be useful and valuable and happy members of society; it is educating them for Life. The teacher's part in all this is not so much to teach as to stimulate. Time, with them, no longer equals money. Time, rather, equals leisure; and leisure equals culture. The Russian masses do not cease schooling until they are close upon twenty; even then, a further five-year university course is available for those with special gifts and aptitudes. Soviet authorities have a dual problem to tackle. Apart from educating the new generation of children, they have also to educate the adults who under Tsardom were deprived of education.

We see from this brief and crude summary that the Russians are availing themselves of the entire educational experience of the modern world: to this may be added nearly ten years of experience in the Soviet Union Schools. They are not afraid of trying the most up-to-date methods, and discarding these if found unsatisfactory. For instance, the Dalton Plan was almost universally adopted, but has now been greatly modified or even entirely discarded. In the working it was found to be too individualistic and to unfit the youngster for group life. The Soviet millions are consciously working to make their educational institutions a success. "They reach out eagerly for ideas, suggestions, criticisms, plans. Their thirst for knowledge is indescribable. . . They are experimenting in industry, in labour organization, in education, in housing, in public health, in science, in art. I have never seen the like, anywhere else in the world. . . . To attempt a description of their activities for people who have never seen them is like attempting to talk about music to a man who has never heard any." Sir Martin Conway, in his interesting book *Art Treasures in Soviet Russia*, has much the same tale to tell of the way the museums, galleries, and studios with their priceless collections are being put to the uses of mass education.

To give some idea of the field covered in Scott Nearing's little book, I here give the titles of the chapters: 1—A Dark Educational Past; 2—The Soviet Educational Structure; 3—Pre-School Educational Work; 4—Social Education—The Labour School; 5—Professional Schools (High Schools); 6—Higher Educational Institutions: *a* Higher Technical Schools (Colleges), b Universities c Institutes; 7—Experiments with Subject-Matter—The Course of Study; 8—Experiments with Methods of Instruction; 9—Organization among the pupils; 10—The Organization of Educational Workers; 11—Higher Education for Workers; 12—Unifying Education; 13—Socializing Culture.

In these pastures I have only browsed at random, in a necessarily inadequate notice. I have no space to describe such interesting experiments as the Rabfacs, Colleges attached to factories where the workpeople study the theoretical and technical side of the productive labour they are engaged in; and a score of other educational experiments. Readers must go to this book to learn something about these fields of Soviet education. Nearing writes in a terse, clear style. He has a tale to tell, and he tells it simply and straightforwardly. His descriptions of encounters with pupils and teachers are vivid and picturesque. He walked into a classroom. The teacher greeted him . . .

> and then went with me into another part of the school, leaving the class he was teaching without any comment. It was a group of husky, fifteen-year-old boys and girls, and I looked for trouble. "In whose charge did you leave that class?" I asked. "In their own charge, of course." "Is someone there responsible for the class?" "Certainly, each group has its responsible committee. We shall soon hear from them. It is time for school to close." Before we had been talking another five minutes, this committee came to announce that the hour was up and to ask whether there was anything further for the class to do that day. The teacher answered in the negative, and the committee went back and dismissed the class.

On another occasion, Nearing tells us:

> I talked with a lad who was a member of the student executive committee of a factory school. . . . "What would you do if a boy smoked in class while the teacher was away?" I asked. "That

is against the rules of the school," the lad replied. " He would be told by the class monitor to behave himself." " Suppose he refused to stop smoking when he was told to?" " Then the case would go to the student executive committee." " But suppose he still smoked in class?" My informant seemed a bit put out. " We never have such a case," he said, " but I suppose that if we did we would take the matter up with the Pioneers, if he belonged to them, or with the Young Communists, if he belonged to them. We might also take it up with the Factory Committee. We certainly would not let the matter pass. There is no such thing as a school without discipline."

It never entered the lad's head to " beat up " the delinquent. His whole method of discipline consisted in bringing social pressure to bear on the offender. This method is widely used among the pupils and seems to be wonderfully effective. We all know the enormous educational value of such self-imposed discipline, and the effect it must have in the creation of useful, efficient, and imaginative citizens.

To get an adequate grasp of the extent and variety of Soviet educational work, I would again urge all readers of the *New Era* to procure a copy of this most valuable booklet. CEDAR PAUL.

Osdoms : A System of Instructive Games.

Most children enjoy the game of dominoes, and both teachers and parents should be interested in seeing how " the principle of matching is enlarged and enriched by fresh interpretations so as to produce the series of instructive games which Messrs. R. Platt & Co., of Wigan, publish under the name of *Osdoms*.

Numbers, colours, words, drawings of animals and geometrical figures, coloured nature illustrations, and even cut-out shapes all appear in place of the usual " unvarying and colourless domino imprints."

The games are suitable for various ages, and provide instruction and amusement for either individual or group. The format is attractive, there is much colour, and the illustrations are artistic.

On Education (Especially in Early Childhood). By BERTRAND RUSSELL. (London : Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 6/- net.)

This is a well considered book on Education, and deals with the aims of education, the education of character, and intellectual education. The author postulates that character is determined by early education, and that the main qualities of a good human being are courage, vitality, sensitiveness, and intelligence.

On these four qualities he then proceeds to elaborate his theme, and while Part II. dealing with the education of character may be considered the main portion of the work, yet his treatment of Part III. dealing with intellectual education arrests one's attention and focuses one's interest by its thoughtful and original treatment of the subject. The last school years and the university period emphasise the cultivation of intelligence with the necessary minimum of definite knowledge, and while accuracy is not to be forgotten, yet the preservation of initiative must be the chief end and aim.

Throughout the book one is struck by the freshness, frankness and the first-hand results of the author's own observations and experiments. On the subject of modern university life drastic criticism is given, but most educationists would agree with this and also whole-heartedly subscribe to the high note on which the treatise ends : " A generation educated in fearless freedom will have wider and bolder hopes than are possible to us, and *must* see the new world, first in their hopes, and then at last in the full splendour of reality."

All readers of the *New Era* would do well to add this book to their permanent library.

J.E.T.S.

The Child's Attitude to Life. By C. W. KIMMINS, M.A., D.Sc. (Methuen. 5/- Net.)

Dr. Kimmin's new book is largely an analysis of the stories that appeal to children. It contains a short study of the development of the sense of humour, and attempts to allot the different forms of humour to different ages.

The subject is then attacked from another angle. We may obtain a certain insight into the child's attitude to life by examining the kind of topics that he elects to write about, and the type of incident especially dwelt upon. In this method, however, it is almost impossible to separate out the child's own ideas from those suggested to him by his elders. Dr. Kimmins has partly succeeded in overcoming this obstacle in an interesting collection of children's stories on air raids. J.B.C.

BOOKS TO READ.*

A short list of books, publications and periodicals which give present-day thinking and practice in Progressive Education in the United States.

The Elementary School Curriculum (F. G. Bonser). Macmillan (London and N.Y.).
The Gary Schools (R. Bourne). Houghton Mifflin, Boston.
An Experiment with a Project Curriculum (Ellsworth Collings). Macmillan.
Changing Conceptions of Education (E. P. Cubberley). Houghton Mifflin, Boston.
The Child and the Curriculum (John Dewey). University of Chicago Press.
Interest and Effort in Education (John Dewey). Houghton Mifflin.
School and Society (John Dewey). University of Chicago Press.
Experimental Studies in Kindergarten Education (Patty Hill, Smith and others). Teachers College, New York City.
Fitting the School to the Child (Irwin and Marks). Macmillan.
Foundations of Method (W. H. Kilpatrick). Macmillan.
The Project Method (pamphlet) (W. H. Kilpatrick). Teachers College, N.Y.C.
Our Enemy the Child (Agnes De Lima). New Republic Pub. Co., New York City.
Creative Youth (Hughes Mearns). Doubleday, Page and Co., New York City.
Child Life and the Curriculum (J. L. Meriam). World Book Co., Yonkers, New York.
Education on the Dalton Plan (Helen Parkhurst). Bell (London).
Experimental Practice in the City and Country School (Caroline E. Pratt). Dutton (London and New York).
Education Moves Ahead (Eugene R. Smith). Atlantic Monthly Press, New York.
The Platoon School (C. L. Spain). Macmillan.
A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools (C. W. Washburne, Vogel and Gray). Public School Pub. Co., Bloomington, Illinois.
Various publications. Bureau of Educational Experiments, 144, West 13th Street, New York City.

PUBLICATIONS BY PROGRESSIVE SCHOOLS.

Francis W. Parker Studies in Education, 330, Webster Avenue, Chicago.
The Lincoln School of Teachers College Publications, 425, West 123 Street, York City (see list at end of Dr. Willing's article in this issue).
Tower Hill School Publications, Wilmington, Delaware.
The City and Country School Publications, 165, West 12 Street, New York City.
The Rosemary Junior School Booklet, Greenwich, Connecticut.
The Ojai Valley School Booklet, Ojai, California.

PERIODICALS.

Journal of Educational Method (monthly). World Book Co., Yonkers, New York. $3 per annum.
Progressive Education (quarterly). Progressive Education Association, 10, Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. $2 per annum.
Teachers College Record. Teachers College, New York City.

* Most of these books are in *The New Era* Lending Library. Write for complete catalogue.

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		Subscriptions per ann., post free:
ENGLISH (Quarterly).	THE NEW ERA Mrs. Beatrice Ensor, 11, Tavistock Sq., London	*4s. 6d. ($1.15)*
FRENCH (Bi-monthly).	POUR L'ERE NOUVELLE Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, Chemin Peschier 10, Champel-Geneva	*6 Fr. (Swiss), 4/8, $1.20*
GERMAN (Bi-monthly).	DAS WERDENDE ZEITALTER Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, Kohlgraben, bei Vacha (Rhön)	*6.60 Mk., 6/8, $1.75*
BULGARIAN (Bi-monthly).	SVOBODNO VASPITANIE Prof. D. Katzaroff, rue Batcho-kiro, 13, Sofia	*60 Levas, $1, 4/-*
HUNGARIAN (Quarterly).	A JOVO UTJAIN Mrs. Marthe Nemes, Tigris-Utca 41, Budapest	*7/6, 125,000 Korona*
ITALIAN (Quarterly).	LA NUOVA ERA Prof. Rag. Arcara, Casella Postale 75, Palermo	*10 Lira; Abroad 20 Lira*

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THE FOURTH

International Conference of the New Education Fellowship

LOCARNO, *August, 1927*

Locarno, on Lake Maggiore, in Italian Switzerland, has been chosen for the meeting place of the next International Conference of the Fellowship, during the first fortnight of August, 1927.

Locarno, "a land of gardens," whose name is now almost synonymous with Peace, is a fitting place for our Conference, for the New Education aims at *creating* true Peace by fostering understanding and ideals of service in the next generation of world citizens.

The natural beauty of Locarno will make the Conference an ideal holiday. There are beautiful walks, lovely excursions in the romantic mountain valley of the Tessin, a rich profusion of flowers, rowing and bathing in the Lake, and sun-baths. The Theatre and the Kursal have been placed at our disposal for meetings. Although situated so far South, Locarno is not too hot in August, for cool breezes blow from the mountains and lake. The town is Italian in atmosphere and language.

THE TRUE MEANING OF FREEDOM IN EDUCATION

will be the general theme of the Conference. An exchange of views between America and Europe will be a special feature of the programme. Several eminent American educationists will be invited to meet and exchange ideas with well-known European representatives of the New Education movement. One lecture will be given each evening for the whole Conference. In the mornings the Conference speakers, each speaker being an expert in some department of the New Education, will hold small study groups for those who wish to follow special problems in detail. We shall also give time to comparing the different individual methods of teaching, which are now so numerous, and to investigating the possibilities of further extension of the New Education in secondary schools.

The programme will be planned so as to give plenty of time to the holiday aspect of the Conference, for it is perhaps during the leisure hours in magic surroundings that some of the strongest links are made between members from different countries. The quiet after-dinner talk by the Lake side may bring more illuminations with it than many a formal lecture.

Our Conferences are renowned for their happy camaraderie. The lecturers mingle with the members as in one large family. By these informal contracts some of the most vital work of the Conference is done.

Prof. Pierre Bovet, Director of the J. J. Rousseau Institute, Geneva, has graciously consented to be President of the Conference, and we are happy to announce that **Dr. Alfred Adler,** the well-known psychologist, will be among the speakers.

Full particulars will be available later on from all the Fellowship's Offices, from the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, the Progressive Education Association, Boston, and from the Open Road, N.Y.C.

Experience is never at fault; only it is your judgment that is in error in promising itself such results from experience as are not caused by your experiments.

—Leonardo da Vinci.

The Outlook Tower

The New Education Fellowship in Scotland

We have obtained more response from Scotland to the work of the New Education Fellowship than from any other country. There are goodly numbers of subscribers to the *New Era* and the Scottish contingent at our international conferences is always a large one. These happy conditions are largely due to the untiring work of Miss Grace Cruttwell, of St. Andrews, who has been General Secretary of the Scottish Section from the beginning. Her personality, capacity and enthusiasm for the cause have been invaluable. She has been ably assisted by Miss A. Pirie, of Glasgow. Together they have been able to secure for the Fellowship Council such well-known educationists as Mr. Robert Hay, Assistant Director of Education for Fife, Dr. William Boyd, Lecturer in Education in the Glasgow University, and Mr. Neil Snodgrass, Master of Method, Dundee Training College.

Our friends over the Border have always been to the fore in education, but notwithstanding the interest displayed in the New Education, there are as yet few radical changes in Scotland and no wholly experimental schools. This is partly due to the fact that the Scottish parent prefers to keep his children at home, educating them at day schools, in which it is more difficult to provide all the conditions necessary to the complete "new school" than in boarding schools. Another factor is the innate caution of the Scottish character which is slow to change time-honoured customs. The academic side of Scottish education is so good, the educational facilities so wide, that naturally all interested want to be convinced of the soundness of the New Education before changing what has produced such good results in the past.

Education in Scotland

The large number of MSS. received for this special Scottish edition, many of which it has been impossible to include, amply proves there is a general progressive tendency in Scottish education to-day. One feels that the changes, though slow, will be thorough and far-reaching. Probably the chief change necessary in Scotland, as elsewhere, is a change in the general attitude to the child, for modern psychology has demonstrated the harm done by repression, inhibitions and rigid discipline, and, above all, by corporal punishment.

It is to the burning shame of Great Britain that she is one of the few countries in which corporal punishment is still used. Modern knowledge of the deeper psychological effects of the use of the cane reinforce the need of an humanitarian point of view. The old argument, that many of our finest men and women suffered corporal punishment in their childhood and have not been psychologically harmed, no longer holds good. We have entered a New Age, an age in which the child is particularly sensitive and highly strung, and so needs the fullest humanitarian and psychological understanding. It should further be remembered that corporal punishment is against the law of evolution, and that we of the twentieth century are bound to work with the inner law of our time. On all sides we watch the struggle for freedom from the shackles of the past, the grappling with the problems of self-government and peaceful arbitration. This keynote of the age affects the politics, economics, education and general social structure of modern times. Lastly, let us not forget the terrible evils fear brings in its train. It not only kills the rightful relationship between teacher and child, but makes for those reserves and inhibitions, those twists and entanglements of the inner nature which in later years lead to the chronic mental and nervous diseases with which we are all too familiar.

Psychology has also shown us that

there can be no rigid standards, no sharp dividing line between good and bad, between heaven and hell—all of which have revealed their relativity under the searchlight of modern scientific enquiry.

Another change we need to hold continually in mind is that while we recognise the importance of academic achievement it should be understood that true education must apply not only to the mind but to the whole nature. Therefore far more outlets than at present exist should be found for the expression of the emotions and more opportunities for creative self-expression.

Miss Marj ie Gullan

It is not necessary to tell our readers of Miss Marjorie Gullan's work both in Scotland and in London. Principal of the Glasgow School of Speech Training, Miss Gullan came to London a year ago, the fame of her Scottish Verse Speaking Choir having preceded her. With the co-operation of the New Education Fellowship it was planned to start a London Verse Speaking Choir, the foundations of which have now been laid. Soon after her arrival Miss Gullan accepted an appointment at the London Day Training College. In the early autumn she will become, in addition, the head of the School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art at the Polytechnic, Regent Street, in succession to the late Miss Louie Bagley. London is to be congratulated on thus opening her arms to one whose genius will serve her so well, and we of the N.E.F. are more than grateful to Scotland for her gift. We hope that at the Polytechnic, Miss Gullan will continue to draw to her the teachers, the office workers, and the young home-makers who, in the past, have found in the speaking of poetry a source of beauty from which flows healing and refreshment for lives oft-times overburdened with drudgery. Miss Gullan has been largely responsible for rescuing verse from the old artificialities of "recitation" and "elocution"; she has revealed the loveliness of words spoken in simplicity and naturalness.* It is with the heartiest good wishes and the warmest assurance of our continued co-operation that we see Miss Gullan enter upon her new work.

A Visit to the Continent

In August I went to Geneva to meet there our colleagues, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten and Dr. Adolphe Ferrière, and with them renewed fraternal links with our friends Prof. P. Bovet, Dr. E. Claparède of the J. J. Rousseau Institute, and Prof. Beltette, of France. Plans were made to draw into closer co-operation the International Bureau of Education, recently started at the J. J. Rousseau Institute, and the New Education Fellowship. Accounts of the new Bureau have already appeared in the *New Era* and we shall keep our readers supplied with news of the Bureau's work. The Fellowship has now affiliated to the International Bureau of Education.

During the summer there have been many international conferences. To name a few:—The International Congress for World Peace at Bierville, the Fellowship of Reconciliation at Oberammergau, the Y.M.C.A. at Helsingfors, the Scouts at Kanderstegg, the Women's International League of Peace and Freedom at Dublin, the Secondary School Teachers' Conference at Geneva (so ably organised by Prof. Beltette), the Peace Congress in Geneva, and the International Moral Education Congress at Rome.

One can imagine a great being looking down upon the participants of these congresses and seeing them very much as we see a swarm of ants, all hurrying and scurrying hither and thither, each thinking himself of supreme importance, each becoming so absorbed in his own little bit of building that he loses sight of the design of the Supreme Architect of the Universe. The individual contributions loom so large yet by means of this narrow intensity the personal

* In the autumn Miss Gullan's book "Spoken Poetry in the School," will be published by Methuen (3/6).

unconscious is able to play its rôle in the unfolding of the conscious. It would seem that the importance of a movement lies in the opportunity it gives for the evolution of the individuals within it, as well as in the attainment of the special objects for which the movement exists. The organisers, the speakers, the inspirers, followers, critics, and harmonising intuitives all re-act upon each other —rubbing off corners and developing new complexes! How easy to become the impersonal onlooker, the cynic, did one not believe that the whole drama of life exists but for the evolution of consciousness to heights that we cannot now foresee. It is not the achievement that matters but the growth, the unfoldment in the process of achieving. "The process is the prize."

I passed on from the human contacts of many conferences to the solitude of the mountains to worship at the shrine of the Jung Frau, so emblematic of perfect humanity in whom consciousness is developed to the full—rooted in power and permeated with peace—suggestive also of the path to be trodden in order to attain to the summit of human evolution, the strenuous individual effort rewarded by reaching peak after peak, and experiencing those expansions of vision which make one for all time a little bigger. There are times when, as we are passing from the valley, we lose sight of the heights, and only faith sustains us. Especially is this true of the pioneers who have left the slowly-winding beaten track for the steep and swift ascent.

This being an educational magazine, let us apply these thoughts to education. Is not all true education individual effort followed by spontaneous illumination? From the study of geometrical figures, for so long purely mental gymnastics, there suddenly emerges a meaning fraught with philosophical content. On some thrilling morning, historical events, that have to be memorised for examinations, reveal their place in the drama of mankind in which we also are partaking. Fortunate the child who contacts the true teacher, who, alas, is none too common, for the true teacher needs to combine academic knowledge with a genius that perceives education as freeing the soul of the child. In the language of modern psychology, the true teacher establishes the right relationship between herself and her pupils so that there may be no reserves, no checks to the outflowing life for which the teacher is the guide and inspirer. The supreme service of education is perhaps to unfold in the child the capacity for creative self-expression and to *lead the child to a vocation in which these powers can be expressed* in the service of others. Creative service, than which there is no greater happiness, is the keynote of all our efforts in the field of the New Education.

To-day we are forced to think too much of the training of the child to earn a livelihood, the struggle for existence is so intense, but we hope that in the future when the economic system is arranged more in accordance with the spirit of brotherhood, most of the school time will be spent in learning the arts of life itself. As Goethe said so many years ago: "We certainly toil and moil too much in preparing for life. Instead of beginning by making ourselves happy amid modest surroundings, we go on widening the scope of our action only to render ourselves more and more uncomfortable." Facts which children acquire slowly and with pain can be acquired in later years with little effort and much speed, for these facts can then be seen in relation to the larger life and are usually learned because they lie within the sphere of immediate interest. No child should be forced to learn without interest, and it is because interest is lacking that education is in most schools such a grind. Some day we shall allow education to follow interest; we shall have found out the interests natural to each stage of the growing child.

In the meantime our scholars leave us at the ages of 18 or 19 to enter the life of the bigger world. How much do they

know of what are perhaps the three most important knowledges of life—of religion (in the true sense of an understanding gained through a study of comparative religion, the foundation of religious tolerance), of the simple laws of psychology (the laws of action and re-action which so largely rule human conduct), and of physiology (the growth and needs of the physical body)?

Frensham Heights School

Frensham Heights, the Demonstration School of the New Education Fellowship, has opened its second year with eighty children. We are making several interesting new experiments this term. The most notable is a new form of individual time-table which aims at giving the children greater freedom to study along their own line and at their own rate. Weaving, pottery and printing are other features of our development. We shall report on our experiments in a future edition of the *New Era*.

Tours for American Teachers

We are arranging a special tour in July next for American teachers who wish to see something of Europe's experimental schools. We are co-operating with the Open Road* who also arrange tours for teachers and students. Cabin and student class accommodation has been secured on a steamer leaving New York July 2nd. Visitors will be met in London and after a few days' rest conducted on a motor trip to some of the leading experimental schools, including a visit to Cambridge. After another period for sight-seeing in London they will be conducted to Paris and visits will be made to some of the "new" French schools. The tour will finish by joining the Fellowship's International Summer School at Locarno, Switzerland, during the first fortnight of August.

In a short time full details of these tours will be available from the Open Road, The Progressive Education Association,† and, of course, from the New Education Fellowship's London office.‡

More extensive tours for teachers are being organised by the Open Road who have appointed Dr. Elisabeth Rotten their European organiser.

Re-Organisation of the New Education Fellowship in England and Wales

When the Fellowship was first founded in 1921, at a period of great economic difficulty in Europe, generous friends provided a donation for the first few years. This donation has now ceased, and we feel that the Fellowship has sufficiently proved its value to be put on a self-supporting basis. The *New Era* itself is firmly established but we need funds for the extension of our special work. It is essential to undertake propaganda and it is essential to do real research work in the New Education, for the thinking majority of the younger generation of teachers have already accepted the principles of the New Education, and there should come now a period of definite and concentrated work on ways and means of putting these principles into practice and of introducing them into all types of schools. The new methods can only spread if there is scientific and psychological evidence that they produce a type of citizen with a richer personality and better able to take his place in the world than his forefathers.

We therefore feel that the time has come when it would be advisable to form a definite association. We propose that membership of the Fellowship be £1 1s. per year, carrying with it full membership of the Fellowship and the following privileges:—

1. Receipt of the *New Era* magazine.

* The Open Road, 2 W., 46th Street, New York City.

† The Progressive Education Association, 10, Jackson Place, Boston, Mass.

‡ The New Education Fellowship, 11, Tavistock Square, London, Eng.

2. Free use of the *New Era* Lending Library which has a postal service for country members and which contains the latest books on new methods in education, modern psychology, etc. Special books, within the Library's scope, which members may require, will be procured for them.
3. The right to use the Fellowship's bureaux in any country for information and assistance.

Subscription to the *New Era* will remain the same, 4/6 per annum, but will carry with it associateship of the Fellowship only and none of the above privileges except, of course, receipt of the magazine. A special letter will be sent to all members in due course giving details of the financial adjustments necessary to bring the present *New Era* subscriptions in line with the new membership fee.

This arrangement at present applies to the English Section only and to America. Sections of the Fellowship in other countries are autonomous. We shall be glad to enrol as full members of the English Section those who are in countries in which a section of the Fellowship has not yet been formed. The position of the Fellowship in America is a little different from that in other countries, as in America the New Education work is being done by our sister organisation, the Progressive Education Association, and therefore we shall probably not form an American Section of the Fellowship, but we ask our American colleagues to link themselves to the English Section and to help us as much as they can, for we seek in our turn to keep them in touch with the New Education work of Europe and to give them every assistance when they are visiting the Continent.

With the steady income which we hope to receive from this new form of membership we shall not only go ahead with research but we shall be able to assist our Continental Sections, which are still labouring under great economic difficulties. Also, we hope to enable some of our members to visit the schools of Europe and America by the founding of travelling scholarships.

We earnestly call upon all who really believe in the New Education to become full members of the Fellowship, not necessarily in order to gain something for themselves, but to make it possible for the movement to do the work it should do.

Good News for Fellowship Groups

Miss Dorothy Matthews, B.A., has been appointed to the Fellowship staff in London. Miss Matthews has had wide experience in lecturing and writing and has also been a teacher for ten years. Her services are at the disposal of members who wish to be helped in the organisation of Fellowship groups in their districts. Miss Matthews' lecture subjects include not only various aspects of the New Education and Modern Psychology but also some very interesting titles concerning Life and Literature.

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* See advt pages iii and iv for New Education Fellowship autumn activities.

The Research Committee of the Educational Institute of Scotland

By William Boyd, M.A., Ph.D.

(*Lecturer in Education, Glasgow University*)

A committee was set up by the Educational Institute of Scotland in 1919 with myself as convener to promote research in education "for the teacher by the teacher," and it is still at work. Its first venture was an inquiry regarding the possibility of establishing objective standards in English and Arithmetic for the guidance of teachers charged with the responsibility of determining the fitness of their pupils for work beyond the elementary stage. Tests in composition, spelling and arithmetic were issued to the schools, and several hundred teachers over Scotland gave willing help with them. The outcome was the establishment of a measuring scale in composition for twelve-year-old children, and a standard spelling list of the words children need graded in order of difficulty, which will be found in *Measuring Devices in Composition, Spelling and Arithmetic* and *The Standard Spelling List.** The spelling list, which was a by-product of the inquiry rather than one of its main concerns, seems to have proved itself of special value to teachers. The Committee's own view was that if schools would use the list the spelling task of the elementary school would be reduced to manageable dimensions, and judging by the demand for it from all parts of the kingdom the view appears to be endorsed by teachers. In consequence a revised and extended version containing 3,500 words has this year been published after further investigation under the title of *The Longer Standard Spelling List.*

Other subjects which have engaged the attention of the Committee have been the teaching of arithmetic in the elementary school, the new methods of examination with special reference to school conditions, the working of the recently-instituted Control examinations for the testing of the fitness of elementary scholars for more advanced education, and the relative importance of the several factors in the learning of spelling. Series of articles embodying the findings of the Committee on all these subjects have appeared from time to time in the *Scottish Educational Journal.* The Committee is at present engaged in working out a set of Intelligence Tests for Leaving Certificate and College Entrance Candidates. The first draft of the tests is being tried in half-a-dozen schools just now, and a revised version will be issued early in the new session to all the secondary schools in Scotland which are willing to put it to the proof over a whole year.

The Committee is under no delusions about the limitations of its work. There are too few teachers in Scotland competent to do original research, and these few are too busy people to carry research as far as it should be carried, to allow us to hope for any great achievement. More important than results is the effect of the Committee's work in educating teachers and making them realise the need for a scientific basis for the business of the school. With this in view the articles in the *Scottish Educational Journal* on the Committee's undertakings, besides reporting the results, have dwelt at length on the ideals and technique of research. This year's articles on spelling, for example, have taken the form of a serial discussion of the steps of investigation in which teachers were invited to join. This year also the attempt has been made to foster private research by the offer of prizes to

*G. Harrap & Co., London.

teachers for theses on the educational history of a Scottish district, parish or school, and to students in the Training Colleges for theses on some aspect of educational work involving personal observation and inquiry.

Behind the work of the Research Committee is the conviction that a knowledge of, and some participation in, the creation of the new educational science, which is coming into being with the application of exact methods of measurement and experiment to the problems of the school, is essential to the freedom of the teaching profession. In the last resort the man with the measuring instruments controls the man who cannot measure in every practical business, and while there is a whole province of spiritual concern in education which transcends measurement, measurement has ample scope in the mechanical performances which condition the spiritual influences. It is the recognition of this which has led the Research Committee to devote a great deal of attention to examinations and tests. Examinations and tests devised and managed by outside experts inevitably subject the teachers and their work to outside control. Devised and managed by teachers who have won the right to do so by becoming experts themselves, they may and should become means of self-improvement and provide a sound argument for the claim to professional self-determination in the internal economy of the schools.

Number for Infants

By Margaret Drummond, M.A.

(Lecturer on Psychology in the Edinburgh Provincial Training College. Author of "Some Contributions to Child Psychology," etc.)

In teaching young children the great difficulty is to distinguish between progress due to growth and progress due to instruction. Mental growth is going on very rapidly, much more rapidly than at any subsequent time. This growth is to a considerable extent directed and determined by the environment; it embraces instructional elements, but these elements are not necessarily given by a professed teacher. To a little child everyone is a teacher; everyone provides him with copy, and is able and generally willing to tell him things he does not know. Before a child can understand and use language, he learns much by observing other people and by experimenting with things. As mental development proceeds he comes to understand our use of sounds to signify purposes, promises, things and relations between things. These magic sounds he imitat his ingenuity in overcoming all difficulties. But we do not attempt to teach him grammar. We know that he is not nearly ready to be interested in the classification and abstract relations of words. We realise that prior to that there must be a long development of thought, which development shows itself in the ever-growing complexity of the sentence structure which is the embodiment of thought. The words are provided by the social environment; they are all around him; he has only to choose, remember and fit them to his purpose. The mental development is his own; it is doubtless stimulated by the environment, but it is not *caused* by the environment. If by formal teaching we attempted to hurry these growth processes we should probably do harm; we should stunt and pervert the delicate organism.

Progress in learning the mother tongue is so obvious, so startling, so altogether

and refrain from interference. But when we come to the child's growth in knowledge of number we find a very different state of affairs. Here there is no outward presentation of the growth that is taking place, as there is in language learning. Each tiny stage, as it seems to us, takes a long time. We cannot wait, we cannot stand back, for nothing seems to be happening. We must teach, or the child will make no progress, and will be hopelessly left behind in the race of life. So in we blunder like the proverbial bull in the china shop and smash about amid the delicate tendrils of the developing mind, doing harm which will be remedied no more easily than the broken china.

To the adult the foundational number concepts are simple and obvious. That one and one make two, that three is greater than one, that four is always and everywhere the same as four ones or two twos, these truths have become to him truisms: there is no room for speculation with regard to them; they simply could not be otherwise. It is not easy for any of us to realise that there are many planes of mental life on which these truths are not perceived, on which these facts do not exist. Once the mind has reached the plane on which they are perceived, it is free of the realm of number. The great fascination that this realm presents to the human mind is that once entry has been effected, the whole of it lies at the mercy of the conqueror. Figures bow to our intellect as nothing else does. They feed our greed for power and flatter our desire to prophesy. The reverence paid by the Greeks to mathematics was reverence paid to intellect in its purest form. It is not, however, by instruction that we can give the child entry to this realm; we must first let him grow through the pre-number stages. The only use we can be in this preliminary period is unobtrusively to let him know that there is a land of pure delight whose name is Numberland. When we count in his presence his fingers and toes, the steps, the window panes, etc., we inoculate him with this knowledge, and we give him new words which he is quite ready to learn though it will be a long time yet before he can fully understand them.

By watching very carefully a baby's growth in the direction of understanding of number I have been able to distinguish several stages, during which I am convinced no formal teaching of number can safely be given. They are as follows:—

1. Here there is no real idea of counting or of number at all. The series of number names may or may not be known. This, of course, depends on the stimulus given by the environment.

2. The child has a clear knowledge of the difference between one thing and *more-than-one*. Two, a lot, or other such terms may be used for more-than-one.

3. At this stage the child can recognise and name correctly small groups. If he has been taught to play dominoes or cards he may recognise all the groups depicted. But although he can recognise the ten-spot card, it does not follow that he will recognise any other group of ten even if arranged in the same way. "Ten" may not yet have won free of the object to which it first belonged.

4. The child begins to show a propensity to count objects. If the group is small he often observes the one-to-one correspondence of name and thing. But with groups of over six or even over four he often goes wrong because he does not yet really understand the true meaning of counting. That understanding comes to him probably through his spontaneous counting of things: it cannot be given to him by explanation: it is a matter of mental development.

5. During this time the higher number names are sometimes used not to mean "many in a group" but to mean "much"; for example, a little girl once said to me, "I have more faith than you; I have fourteen faith."

6. At this stage counting becomes extremely careful and accurate. The child knows what he is doing, and takes pride in his knowledge. It is at this stage that he will count all the beads in Dr. Montessori's chain of a thousand

beads, and undertake other Herculean tasks of a similar nature. He has now left the baby attitude behind him and practically stands on the adult plane. We can talk to him now without much fear of misunderstanding, though whether there is yet much use in attempting to teach him I am not sure.*

It will be recognised that the child's number knowledge grows along two distinct lines—recognition of groups and construction of series (counting). I am inclined to regard the first as on the lower plane, but I must admit that I have known a little girl who could count up to ten spots quite correctly, yet who failed to distinguish even between the two-spot and the three-spot card. Perhaps, however, my experiments with her had favoured the one line of growth at the expense of the other. The distinction between group recognition and series construction is often linked with the distinction between space and time; time belongs to the series, space to the group. When children clap their hands and count, or bounce their balls and count, the time element is evident; but when we clarify a large group by counting it we usually re-introduce the spatial element by gathering it all together again in one act of thought.

The stages I have distinguished are not, of course, in reality clearly separated from one another, nor am I certain that the order is always the same. Many children have passed through them all by the time they are four, but with some the process is much more protracted. It is not complete in a very large proportion of five-year-old entrants to school; and this fact is a strong argument for an informed and directed neglect of number during the first year of school life. Most assuredly no class teaching should be done on the subject, and any child who shows uncertainty in counting should be wisely left alone.

To give some idea of the difference between the adult and the child I will give some examples supplied me by the little person who has taught me so much of the intricate psychology of the early years. When Margaret was three and a quarter she could name the groups up to four when arranged as on playing-cards, but one day when she herself set down four crosses in a row she called them three. Some six months later she still had difficulty with four in a row, while three was "one after another and one after another."

The different planes on which adult thought and child thought function with regard to number were well shown in my attempts to obtain arbitrarily selected groups from her when she was a little over three. "Bring me five roses," I would say. She went off to her obliging bricks which served for roses or anything else. She studies them, and enquires, "Is three five?" Note the impossibility of the question so far as the adult is concerned. "No," I said. She then brings four, which I count over aloud. "That is only four. I wanted five." "But four is a lot. You can have that lot." These words suggest that Margaret was then still just in Stage 2, in spite of the fact that with cards she knew the look of groups up to four. On this same occasion she brought me three, enquiring: "Is that five?" "That is three," I said. "I will get one more." Here at least is the realisation that five is more than three, but no realisation of the apparently known fact that one more than three is four—not five.

There did not seem at this period any power of dealing with groups which were not present to the eye. For instance, the child was asked: "If there were three gulls swimming on the river, and one flew away, how many would be left?" "Are there two?" she said at once. "If there were two gulls and one flew away, how many would be left?" To this question, put immediately after the last, she said, "Two," then "Three," and at last "One." So that it appeared her first answer was merely a happy guess.

* For further discussion see "Psychology and Teaching of Number," by Margaret Drummond. Harrap, London, 1923.

When she was four years of Margaret sometimes received five strawberries at breakfast. One morning I gave her only one. She at once demanded her five. "How many more for five?" I enquired. "Two," she said, and was quite satisfied when she received them. The following day I gave her two to begin with, and again had occasion to ask her, "How many more to make five?" She again replied, "Two," forgetting or ignoring the fact that the day before she had started with one. Again when she received two she was quite satisfied.

It may be maintained that this child could have been taught, had there been any reason for haste. But I do not think so. Through my questions and experiments with her she was receiving a certain amount of tuition had she been capable of assimilating it. If I had pressed it on her in any way, I should, I am sure, simply have caused her to form a dislike for a subject which at her stage must have appeared to her extremely difficult and obscure. This is the reaction that we produce in many of the little people in our schools who at five years of age are no more ripe for instruction than Margaret was at four. We should regard it as a duty to avoid producing an impression which can only impede their natural development.

Practice in the number sequence may be given before the child's concepts of numbers are stable. It is easy for little children to memorise series of sounds even when for them the series has no meaning. It is desirable that they should know the number series so that they can say it forwards or backwards, and can pick it up at any point. Such ability, of course, is not ability in number, but so long as the teacher realises this clearly, the exercise forms quite a legitimate preparation. More important, however, are spontaneous practice and experimentation with number. It is usually easy to arrange for this to happen by the provision of suitable games and counting material.

If we let alone wisely, the children will make discoveries for themselves, and will have the intellectual joy of those discoveries. When Margaret was four and three-quarters, I gave her a little number play with counters, arranging them in two groups. We found that 5 plus 2 equals seven. Next I gave her 4 plus 3. She had to count beginning at one. "Why," she said, "it's the same." Then she noticed that by moving one counter along she could transform 4 plus 3 into 5 plus 2. One could see in her little face the light that comes with the birth of a new idea. Such discoveries are epoch-making for the child, and he ought not to be rushed along the path because, habit-blinded creatures that we are, we can no longer see its wonders. At five and a half Margaret made another great discovery. I used then to deal out the playing cards two at a time, allow her to name the two groups, and then find out how many spots there were altogether. There came forth an eight and a nine. "Is it eight and nine or nine and eight?" she asked. "Would there be any difference?" said I. Very thoughtfully she responded. "It would make a difference, wouldn't it?" These examples are instructive because they show how much hard thinking the child has to do before he really grasps number relations. To give him verbal help tends to confuse him. He ought to be allowed plenty of time to work the matter out for himself. Ways of playing with counters, laying them in threes, fours, etc., and counting how many he has in one row, two rows, three rows, and so on, may occasionally be suggested to him, but the best games will be those he makes for himself.

So far as the teacher is concerned the real subject for infants is not number but language. At this period the child has a marvellous capacity for learning things and for associating names with things and with actions. Even here, however, the teaching should not be too formal or insistent. The teacher should provide a rich environment and then

allow every child to receive according to his capacity. In this environment should be included certain words and things which belong to the realm of number. The infant will very readily make acquaintance with inches, feet and yards, with gills and pints, with units of area, with units of weight, with our coins, and perhaps with a few of the coins of other countries. The idea of fractions will naturally arise; such words as half, quarter, third, will enter the children's vocabulary, and under a careful teacher will acquire exact meanings. With a little simple apparatus the principle of fractions can easily be taught. If the children's hands have been properly trained they will enjoy using ruler and protractor, and as they create halves, quarters, sevenths, or hundredths, as their own interest directs them, the meaning of a unit will become an ineradicable part of their mental equipment.

Notation can be taught as need arises. Learning the symbols presents no real difficulty. Once the child knows the meaning of the number names, he is ready to make the association between name and symbol. A first idea of the mode of representing the higher numbers may be gathered from the figures on houses, and on motor cars. The principle of the ten can be demonstrated by making ten beads into a ring or ten sticks into a bundle. An intelligent child finds no difficulty in the device, but I do not think there is any need to stress it much until the time arrives for the child to "do sums." Ten as a base is from the mathematical point of view purely arbitrary, and if its importance as a base is impressed too deeply on the little child's receptive mind, the fact may make it difficult for him later to see that eight or twelve or any other number might have been chosen. The teacher of infants has to be careful at every point to do nothing that may obstruct the child's intellectual development at a later stage.

The great thing in the infant school is that the pupils should not be hurried with regard to number, and that they should not be confused. Drill in the number associations should be left for the junior or possibly for the senior department. When it is undertaken it should be done systematically, and tested by results. Not too much time should be spent on it, nor should the acquisition of speed be valued beyond its merits. After all, there are comparatively few walks in life where speed in computation is a daily need, and in such cases it can be easily acquired even in adult life provided there are no school-formed bad habits to contend against.

Teachers who read this article may have been thinking that instead of telling them how to teach number to infants I have been telling them *not* to teach number to infants. I suppose this is largely true. Yet reflection on the general tenor of the article and careful consideration of the last two or three paragraphs will show that I lay great stress on the importance of the preparatory work that should be done during the first six or seven years of life. The great essential is to know the psychological stages through which the child must pass, and to give no teaching that is unsuited to the individual. The method of apprehending the subject, the rate at which the psychological stages are passed through, the amount of time that should be given to actual study, these probably all differ from individual to individual. In this subject perhaps more than in any other the teacher must be flexible to the needs of the child.

A New Venture in Education

St. Trinnean's School, Edinburgh

By Miss C. Fraser Lee, M.A. (Edin.)

(*Principal of St. Trinnean's*)

No more difficult task could be imposed upon the proverbially silent Scot than to write about himself; yet this is what the Editor demands. If we fail ignominiously in our attempt, we beg our readers to come and see us for themselves, when they visit Edinburgh.

We are housed in a lovely old mansion, surrounded by acres of ground; in front stretch the green playing fields, and behind rises Arthur's Seat, the slopes of which we climb every morning before the day's work begins. Yet in twenty minutes we can reach the heart of Edinburgh, so that all the advantages of town and country are ours, and both are necessary to give the modern child an abundant entrance into life. We are now four years old, perhaps still too young to talk at all; but, young though we are, we have grown amazingly.

We do not follow any stereotyped system but are gradually developing one of our own, constantly making the changes and adaptations which experience proves necessary. We are a self-governing community; the children themselves chose the name "senate" for the 12 prefects appointed by secret ballot who are responsible for all that is included in "discipline" as understood in other schools. We have a "suggestion box" in the corridor, and almost every week something is contributed, often by quite tiny folk. To these suggestions the Senate gives careful consideration; if approved, they find their way into our constitution, and so our system has grown.

At our first Morning Assembly I explained that our hope was that we should be a community, where through freedom and co-operation we might learn to serve, but that the children would require to find out for themselves how best this could be accomplished. The story of our Patron Saint—St. Trinnean is the Gaelic for St. Ninian—exemplifies this ideal; our badge and motto—a Celtic cross with the words in Gaelic "Light and Joy" express it.

In evolving our scheme of education we had in our minds the method adopted by the old Scottish Dominie in training the "lad o' pairts." With his multifarious duties all the Dominie had time to do was to map out the course of study to be followed; the boy laboured assiduously, asking and receiving help only when insurmountable difficulties presented themselves. Our task is to inspire, to guide, and to give help in difficulties, but only after these difficulties have been honestly grappled with by the child.

In all departments of our life we are free. We try to give entire freedom, a freedom which all must enjoy and which therefore must never degenerate into licence. We also try to give full scope to the individual, yet only do so in order that she may develop her gifts for the good of the community. We are all individuals, but if we are to reach our best, we must live as members of a community.

In planning a communal life for 160 children, of whom 38 are boarders, the thought of the common aims and interests which bound together the old Scottish Clans came to our help. With us the Clan became the House—the names of the eight Houses are all linked with the life story of our Saint. In the four Senior Houses are boarders and day girls between the ages of 10 and 18. Each House appoints its own House Committee, has a House Mistress and several Mistresses attached; all that concerns the child concerns her House; her good work

adds lustre to it, and, when she fails, her House suffers in prestige and honour. Particularly good work is recorded by stars on the House Sheet, and an interesting development has been that gradually the individual has sunk herself in the whole. At first individual names appeared on these sheets, now the "stars" alone appear, each House choosing its own particular design, emblematic of its name.

The Senate has worked out an interesting system by which the marks they give for untidiness, unpunctuality, or any other fault affecting the well-being of the community may be worked off, and the hope of being able to atone in this way for lapses of conduct entailing lack of consideration for others has appealed very much to the girls. Recently two girls expressed the wish that they might suffer some penalty which would only hurt themselves, instead of receiving the mark which would tell against their House; but our girls are learning that no one standeth or falleth to himself, and that the deeds of the individual react upon the community in which he moves.

It has been very gratifying to notice that the Senate has little by little learned through experience how difficult it is to punish aright, how crude the usual methods of punishment are, how much harm they often do, and how little infliction of penance avails unless it brings about a changed attitude of mind and heart. At first girls who had come from other schools, or who had acquired their ideas about school life from story books, had no idea of punishment beyond detention, writing of lines, or infliction of extra tasks. Experience and discussion have led to the verdict that a dislike for poetry might be acquired, if a child were compelled to learn by heart lines she could neither correctly pronounce nor understand. In further talk about punishment, they arrived at the conclusion that the writing of impositions caused carelessness in hand-writing and was a waste of time, and that detention deprived the child of the recreation and exercise necessary for the maintenance of health and vigour.

Methods of Acquiring Knowledge

To come now to our methods of acquiring knowledge. The four Junior Houses, where we have again day-pupils and boarders, but here boys as well as girls between the ages of 4 and 10, differ in their methods of Free Work from the Seniors. The Juniors use a modified Dalton Plan, Individual Time-tables, Dramatic Presentation, Project Method, and we are ever experimenting in new and original ways. The greater part of the day is spent by these children out of doors. Even in grey cold Scotland we found last summer that they were able to work all day in the garden from the middle of May to the end of July with the exception of two very wet days.

Perhaps the description of a typical school day among the Seniors will best show you our method there. Morning Assembly is our starting point for the day, but beforehand each girl goes to her House room, is greeted by her House Mistress and performs any duty for the comfort of that small community which may have been assigned to her by the House Committee. She then proceeds with her House to Prayers and returns thereafter to her House room again where she decides for herself which studies she would like to carry out.

Here may I just say a word about Morning Assembly? Our aim is to give some spiritual uplift for the day, that we may there in a spirit of reverence and meditation, in beautiful surroundings and with the aid of beautiful music seek to see the things that are unseen and eternal. Each week we take some topic, suggested perhaps by national events, by something arising in our own community, or by some question from the "suggestion box" already mentioned. Here is one: "Please, Miss Lee, will you take a few minutes to explain the phrase I found in the Bible, 'the fear of God.'" I like the naïve faith in my capacity to explain a subject so vast in a few minutes! Here,

as in every other department, the girls do all that is possible for themselves. The Junior Houses have prayers alone, later, in a service suited to their age; they also provide subjects for our morning talk.

Until recreation, we are now all occupied with free study; the girls go to the room set apart for the particular subject they have decided to study; there, they find the subject mistress whom they may consult. Each girl has previously received a scheme of work, and also a scheme of "time-totals" for a fortnight's study. She marks on her own Time Calendar the amount of time she gives; she is free to work alone, or with a friend, and with or without help from a mistress. In some instances, when all the assignments were completed before the end of the fortnight, we have had some interesting original work done.

The girls have shown themselves very wise in planning their work, using their time to good advantage. Their methods vary greatly; several choose first the subject they find most difficult, and work at it for continuous spells; few choose first the subject they find easiest, preferring to keep it in reserve. We have not interfered with their plans. Three lessons of 35 minutes are given each morning; thus each Group meets with the subject mistress at least once a week, in some subjects twice, and in languages three times.

At the end of the fortnight the girls' calendars are signed by each subject mistress if the work is satisfactory, and, where insufficient time has been taken, or work appears to be hurried or in any way seems unsatisfactory, the unsigned calendar is referred to the House Mistress for further investigation.

Work carried out in this way becomes more akin to play in that it is more spontaneous, more free, and to a large extent self-determined. There is no doubt that the girls enjoy it. They are very happy, very much alive, eager to give suggestions, and have a sense of responsibility, and know where to go for the information they require.

During our mid-day interval from 12.35 to 2.15 the girls are free as soon as dinner is over to follow their own interests, except on one afternoon when at their own request those who care to do so meet for a short Library Reading. Members of the Staff and the older girls read in turn, and we all have many pleasant memories of this brief time of refreshment, when we were introduced to new friends, whose further acquaintance we eagerly cultivated for ourselves.

The afternoon, when possible, is spent out of doors; work varies, and girls are occupied individually or in Groups representing the different Houses at handwork, singing, drawing, musical appreciation, free study, games, eurhythmics, gardening, or the various pursuits of the Brownies. After tea we have several social activities, dancing, musical and literary societies, plays, Guide meetings and occasional house parties, etc. The programmes of all social functions are in the hands of the girls.

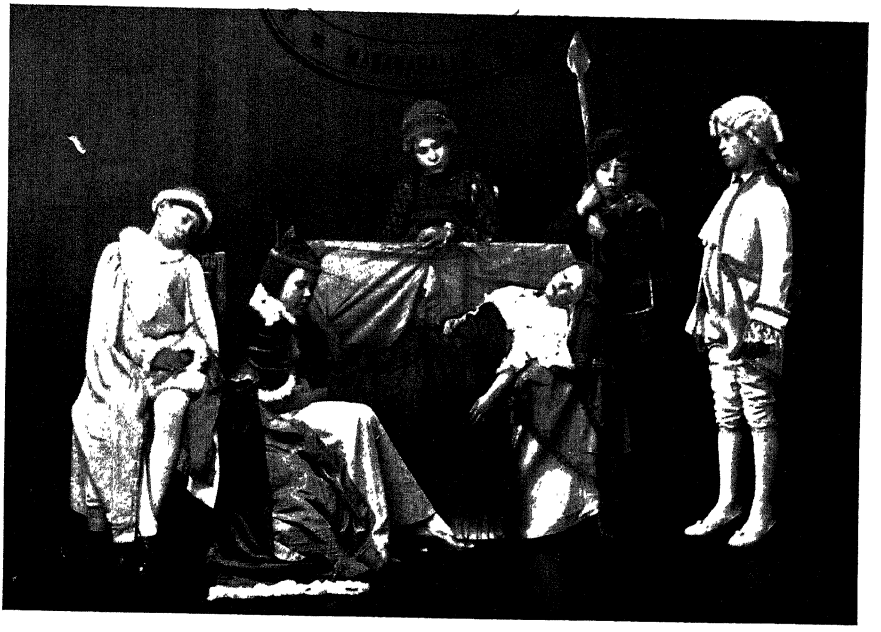
From time to time without any warning the girls have been asked to write down what they found most helpful in our way of working, and I think one or two of their comments may be of interest. In every case the girls are quite decided they would not like to go back to the old school methods, and all appreciate the fact that they are able to go to the mistress for help if explanation is required.

Extracts from Ages

"I think it is better to work for your House than for yourself, because it helps to get the team spirit into your work. . . You work much harder for the House than for yourself. . . . When there is no one first or second there is a much more friendly feeling, because we are not all trying to go one better than the other. . . . I like having 'Houses' for there are people of all sizes there, not just all about one age; also, besides knowing the girls in your own Group, you get to know the girls in all the Groups."

This last comment interested me very much, as we have felt very markedly that

DRAMATIC PERFORMANCES AT KING ARTHUR SCHOOL, MUSSELBURGH



THE SLEEPING BEAUTY

AS YOU LIKE IT

DRAMATIC PERFORMANCES AT KING ARTHUR SCHOOL, MUSSELBURGH

A MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM

MASQUE SCENE FROM "THE TEMPEST"

the House System is of particular help to the adolescent girl. There she finds older girls to whom she can go for advice, while she has the younger ones, whom she loves to "mother." She is not, as formerly, always associating with those of her own age, who have similar difficulties to overcome.

How happy we should feel, could we believe that the following assertions were true!

"You have your career in the hollow of your hand. . . It helps you to be your own master wherever you go."

An adaptation which we found wise to make in the case of the younger children was to reduce their assignment to a weekly one, also to restrict the free movement from room to room as it appeared to distract them too much. They now do all their Free Study in the same room where they have their own small reference library.

I cannot refrain from adding the following unedited document from one of our boys, Athol, aged 8:—

"I like free days because you can do anything you like. Because when you ask us kwistions (sic.), if we know, we get so igsited, for at free day we just do what we like and no more about it, and you don't have any igsitement at all, you can get on with your work."

Visitors very frequently ask the following questions; they may now be in the minds of our readers:—

1. *How does your system affect examinations?*

Our method is certainly not a drawback; it appears, rather, to give a feeling of confidence in tackling an examination. The girls are accustomed each week to deal with their type-written assignment and to express themselves in writing, so that when an outside examination has to be faced they generally do well.

2. *Do you not find that so much written work is bad for writing and spelling?*

We are careful to give a certain portion of each assignment to non-written work. The frequent use of reference books, the longer spells of concentration, and the fact that work is done in the morning hours all tend to an improvement both in writing and spelling.

3. *Do the girls not require marks and competition as a spur, and what happens to the lazy girl?*

We have certainly not found any such spur necessary.

The House system provides any competitive spur required, and the girls appear very readily and cheerfully to accept co-operation instead of competition. We have also an interesting number of House Competitions — suggested by the girls. These are decided by a record of work during the year from the Star Sheets, or in some cases partake of the nature of miniature eisteddfods, or, as we prefer to call them, a "Mod." Some of these competitions are in Reading (English and French), English Essay or Music.

Personally I have yet to find a lazy child. All children, if well, are eager to be up and doing—not perhaps just to do what you wish them to do at one particular moment, but the normal child is surely always engaged in some "ploy," and, where freedom of choice is given, will find employment. In one case where we found a girl of 13 years always behindhand in accomplishing her work in certain subjects, we decided to have an intelligence test taken. The result proved her to be above the average in general intelligence, but in reasoning processes very slow; a further investigation of her family history led us, in consultation with the psychologist who had carried out the test, to give her an entirely free time-table with long spells in the garden, where she was often content to "stand and stare." The work this girl is now accomplishing (her own choice, it is interesting to note left out entirely only Latin and Mathematics) is infinitely more satisfactory, she is full of vitality, keenly interested, and very much more robust in health.

4. *Do the prefects not feel their responsibilities very heavy?*

We have never found this, but if it is to be avoided, we feel there must be a

very strong bond of sympathy and understanding between the girls and ourselves. As one of the younger girls expressed it on one occasion: "It is so easy because we respect each other." The prefects are always anxious to discuss any difficulties with us, and frequently invite us to their meetings, when, although we have not a seat on the Senate, we are always welcome to join in the discussion. The House system helps us here, too, as the friendship existing between the prefects, the House Mistresses, and even the youngest House member makes responsibility, or, as we prefer to think of it, opportunity for service, something that all may share.

A training for service, which is to be of lasting value must, however, extend beyond the narrow confines of our own community. So we have interested ourselves in a Kindergarten in India, the Deep Sea Fishermen's Mission, two Homes for Wounded Soldiers in our neighbourhood, and a Girls' Club in one of our slum districts. Many and varied are the ways in which our interest is shown.

Some day I hope we shall really find ourselves in the condition in which one of our new babies felt we were, when she said: "Oh, St. Trinnean's is lovely. There are no corners there." That is our aim: "No corners." We find punishments and repression unnecessary; we feel that these young folk can express themselves best in an atmosphere of friendly co-operation, where each one freely and happily gives her best for the good of the community. As you watch them and see their industry, their thoughtful consideration, their steady growth in self-control, their bright eyes and happy faces, you feel indeed "the letter killeth but the spirit giveth life."

New Education for Infants

(Under this heading, for lack of greater space, we include all too brief notes on valuable work being done in the Infant Departments of several schools)

The Training College School, Dundee
(By Miss E. Luke, Mistress of Method, Infants' Department)

INDIVIDUAL work was introduced from the beginning to keep the bright, clever pupils happily and usefully employed, while the teacher gave special attention to the slower ones. This method was found to have such a beneficial effect on these children, that certain times were set apart every day, when all should have free choice of work. When these little people selected their own work from a carefully graded set of apparatus, they worked with such enthusiasm that the difficulty was to supply apparatus to meet their demands. It was found that the use of individual work gave the children training in many of the qualities which we are all anxious to foster—initiative, resource, self-reliance, unselfishness, co-operation, tidiness, carefulness and cleanliness. It was found also that the teacher and class were drawn closer together.

There are five classes in the Infant and Junior Departments, with about forty pupils in each class. Individual work is used at all stages.

The Morning Assembly

The Infant Department assembles in the Hall at 9.30, when a short musical service is conducted, consisting of a suitable morning hymn, a very simple prayer, a nature or seasonal hymn, and, if it happens to be a birthday, a birthday hymn. The "news bulletin" follows, when an opportunity is given to the children to tell any interesting item of home news. This serves a double purpose: it materially improves the

speech, and it shows the children that the teachers are interested in all their little doings. The service finishes with one good gramophone record, the children being encouraged to keep time to the music by swaying their arms or by rising quietly and stepping out the tune.

The Babies

The classes then proceed to their own rooms. The Babies (the under-fives) go straight to the cupboards and help themselves to any piece of work that takes their fancy. Several get mats and sit on the floor to work with the Montessori "Stairs." Sorting-out boxes, colour-matching cards, tablet-fitting cards, pairing animals or bird pictures, and many easy number games occupy others. The fishpond or the number ladder or the various number charts on the wall take the attention of others, whilst a few are always to be found with their letter-boxes at the Illustrated Animal Sound Chart which hangs near a low blackboard, on which they make attempts to reproduce their letters. The teacher moves about amongst her happy, busy family, giving individual attention, calming little people who are inclined to become boisterous in their play, but not interfering unless interference is required. The children know that everyone is expected to do something, and with the majority there is no difficulty. If a child has made a big effort and worked or played hard for ten minutes or so, he is quite entitled to rest and watch the others: that kind of idleness does not worry the teacher. It is the persistently lazy child, requiring constant urging to make the necessary effort, who constitutes the difficulty, and the teacher's tact and patience are often severely tested in dealing with cases of this kind. Rhythmic Work, Singing Games, Stories, Nursery Rhymes, Poetry and Dramatisation occupy these little people from 11 to 12, and their school day ends with a short Bible Lesson and a closing hymn and prayer.

The Infant Classes

More time is now given to group work. A short counting lesson is given to the class as a whole, and then each one chooses his or her own piece of individual work in counting. In speech training and reading also a general lesson is given, and then the class is divided into groups, one group reading to the teacher, the members of another group helping each other to prepare their lesson, whilst the remaining groups do individual work. During the afternoon session there is always a period for free choice of work, when the children choose any form of activity suitable to their grade in reading, writing or number. The teacher keeps a careful watch and occasionally has to give advice. But no child is *given* an exercise; within certain limits he chooses his own card or envelope. The children love these self-appointed tasks and work most enthusiastically. No piece of work is considered finished until it is neatly written out on unruled paper or in little home-made note-books.

The Junior School

The two classes in the Junior School have also their Free Period in the afternoon, when they select their own work. Their Number Games are based on the Multiplication Tables, Simple Money Problems and Fractions, whilst their English Boxes contain Picture Composition Cards, General Intelligence Cards, and various "puzzles" on interesting and instructive matters. Their class libraries are divided into two sections: Fairy Tales, Myths and Legends (to encourage reading for pleasure); Historical and Geographical Tales and Nature Study Stories (to encourage reading for information).

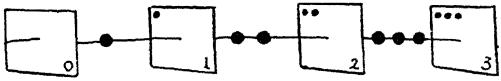
The Individual Work

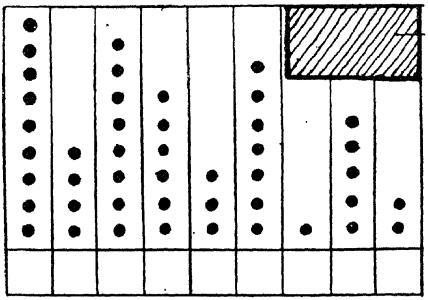
The Individual apparatus is all kept in prettily covered boxes, labelled and numbered. No set of boxes is confined to one class-room, but as soon as all the members of one class have mastered a

particular "Box," it is passed to the class below. The teacher must be constantly exhorting her little pupils to take great care of the apparatus, to keep it clean for others to use, and to be careful not to lose any of the small parts. Even then the teacher must be prepared to give up much of her own spare time to the renovating of old and the making of new apparatus. Much of our "Number Material" is home-made—cardboard, match-boxes, sticks, peas, beads and counters forming the foundation. It is arranged in a graded list, numbered from 1 to 50. Examples:—

BOX 4. Punched cards for Bead Laying.

BOX 6. Bead Threading with numbered spotted cards.

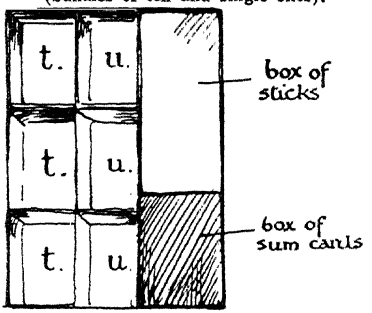




BOX 17. Spotted Card. Figures for Laying.

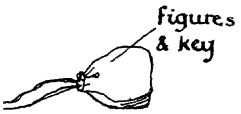
BOX 18. Figured Card. Counters for Laying. (The reverse of Box 17.)

BOX 37. Addition Boxes with sum cards and sticks (bundles of ten and single ones).



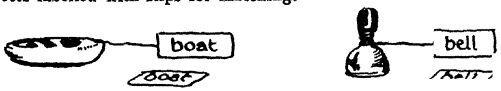
Make numbers up to 15.		
12	3	9
4	11	5
13	6	10
7	14	8

BOX 30. Varnished Boards (3-ply wood). Composition of number—key supplied.



The "Reading Material" is stored in boxes in a similar fashion, labelled and numbered from 1 to 36, starting with simple matching exercises.

BOX 1. Objects labelled with slips for matching.



BOX 8. Pictures. Words for placing. BOX 12. Varnished Boards (Word-Building and Story Reading).
BOX 18. Peter Pan Reading Sheets (published by Oxford University Press).
BOX 29. Picture and Sentence Matching (taken from "Child Education").

Bruntsfield Public School, Edinburgh

The Infants' Department of Bruntsfield School, under Miss Margaret Moir, following the example of the late Miss K. F. Brenmer, who established the first experimental class on Montessori lines in Edinburgh in 1914, has adopted a programme of combined individual and collective work. There are five classes. Two rooms are furnished with chairs and lockered tables, with wall-boards and suitable cupboard accommodation. In the other rooms the teachers make the most of conditions not so up-to-date. Each class is divided into groups, the units in a group usually being children of the same standard of attainment. No two groups in a class work simultaneously at the same subject. One group may be busy with modelling, another with Montessori drawing, a third with reading and so on. The children enjoy their work thoroughly and are being trained through it in habits of "busyness," carefulness and courtesy. The children are frank and natural, looking on "Teacher" as adviser and friend. A short collective lesson is given on the Three R's daily.

Victoria Drive School, Scotstown, Glasgow

Miss A. K. Aitken, Infants' Mistress and Supervisor of Junior Division, reports a successful experiment in Individual work. In 1915 the first experiment on Montessori lines was made and its results proved beyond all expectations. Two other experiments followed:—(*a*) Three months' Individual work followed by Class work; (*b*) Class-work, but each child using Individual apparatus. These two experiments, with the work of the preceding year for background, cleared away many misconceptions and gave a deeper insight into the child's needs. As a result of Individual methods many children are doing work in different subjects one to two years ahead of the ordinary school standard for the same age. In addition, through working for himself and by himself the child's character is developed and strengthened. And the Teacher? She is happy. The old drudgery, driving unwilling children to work has disappeared. Work for the teacher is not easier but it is now of overwhelming interest. Each day is a fresh adventure, for the child is ever new.

West Infants' School, St. Andrews

Miss Barnet has for some years past conducted a very successful experimental class for infants of five to six years. The work is done with apparatus entirely home-made, ingeniously devised at a minimum of cost. Cheap but attractive beads of different colours, threaded in regular but varying groups and sequences, play a large part in counting operations; matches cut to different lengths, and other simple but effective devices are used to train observation of measurement; and a great variety of letter and number games teach the alphabet and the rudiments of figuring happily, easily and thoroughly. The children choose their own occupations, and bring each task accomplished to the teacher, who tells them if it is done correctly, and if not helps the child to find out its own mistake. The children are a joy to watch—happy, healthy, orderly, and intensely interested in their work, and the system has been found to be thoroughly successful in developing intelligence and the wish to learn.

A great feature of Miss Barnet's work is the Rhythmic Training which is given throughout the school, which is of such special quality that the musical games and dances performed by the children have become quite famous in the neighbourhood, and draw large audiences whenever a performance is given.

Elgin Street Public School, Clydebank, Glasgow

Miss A. W. Hislop has faced the problem of testing the infants in a school where 100 children are admitted every September. By simple charts derived from the Terman Tests a record of each child's intelligence and general development is made.

The Middle of the Road

By Grace Cruttwell

(*Art Mistress at St. Leonard's School, St. Andrews, Fife*)

LET not the eager pioneer who reads this heading condemn what follows unread, with the hated word "Compromise" For the road in the writer's mind is not the grey, dull road of ignoble compromise, which knows not whence it comes nor whither it goes; but bright and shining is it with the dawn of the morning, and they who travel along it know very well where they are going, whether they call it The New Jerusalem or The Perfect School. But the path is not always clearly defined, and some of the most swiftly moving spirits hasten on, now bearing to the right and now to the left, while others of different temperament find that for them the swiftest and surest means of advance is to keep straight on in the middle of the road.

The chief strength of the New Education Fellowship is its international character; each of the many nationalities of which it is made up brings to the movement its own peculiar and unique offering. Very especially was this noticeable at the Heidelberg Conference of August, 1925; the remarkable series of exhibitions of children's art work from the different countries there represented, made up a vivid and richly coloured whole which would not have been possible without this international combination. The articles which have from time to time appeared in *The New Era*, from various pioneers in the field of art teaching, have like searchlights of different colours each turned on the subject a bright light of a particular kind. The light which Scotland can shed reminds me of her own northern lights, the steady white radiance of those most commonly seen, with only an occasional flash of the fearful splendour of the Aurora, though we never forget that both come from the same mysterious source.

The Scottish work shown at Heidelberg was of the typically British sort—steady, sane, and of a clear-cut precision dear to the hearts of our compatriots; but there was only one school represented in the exhibition, and that (St. Leonard's School, St. Andrews) one of too specialised a character to represent well the country as a whole. Probably, however, had the Scottish show been more representative, there would have been the same sharply defined contrast with the work of Central Europe, for instance, which showed a vivid robustness of life and colour and in some cases valuable decorative qualities, while exhibiting, to our eyes, a certain disregard for exactness of form. The following thoughts are the result of the simmering in my mind of the discussions to which these national differences of outlook naturally led us.

To take as a starting point certain parts of the solid basis on which we all agree: there is one fine thing among many which the New Education has discovered, and that is the stupidity of forcing a child to work in a manner that is impossible or unsuitable for its age; another, that there is far more of value and of beauty in one drawing showing the free expression of the child's creative fancy than in scores of more or less correct imitative efforts. Professor Cizek has definitely proved both these points many times over, and for all the world to see, for those who have had no opportunity of going to one of his exhibitions of children's work, can now buy postcards and other cheap reproductions of many of the most wonderful drawings. Again, no one, even the most hardened disciplinarian of the old school, could fail to be impressed by the enormously multiplied energy and efficiency displayed by a class of youngsters of any age, who are allowed to use their

imagination and be interested in their work, compared with that of a class of the same age and calibre set to dull tasks of the old-fashioned sort,—ugly piles of cones and cubes, or worse still, a sailor hat and bandbox, two oranges and a glass cloth, or the so-called freehand copy which seemed to be specially devised to cramp the hand rather than to free it. Readers of *The New Era* do not need to have these truisms insisted upon, any more than the marvellous fact of the complete disappearance of the problem of discipline when once the children are interested in what they are doing. If they are uninterested, and therefore, of course, become slack over their work and give trouble, it simply means that the teacher has failed to find the right key to open their eyes and souls, or more probably is expecting the same key to fit every child in the class. This brief sketch of our position must suffice for the present, for we want to find out what is the contribution that British commonsense can make to this glorious new movement which is apt at times to sweep us off our feet, so strong is its appeal and so patent its truth and reasonableness.

Now we all know that the aim of producing immediate and spectacular results as a proof of efficiency has been in the past, and still is in many cases, a Moloch to which the child's health and future development, even its mental balance, have been immolated. We needs must cry out in protest whenever we see this iniquity being done, and plead for a recognition of what Mrs. Johnson, in her witty and arresting lecture at Heidelberg, called the "perfection" of the different stages of the child's growth, only demanding from him at each stage what Nature has ordained that he shall give without harm to himself. But need this necessarily mean that it does not matter how little he learns at school? Need Freedom mean a lowering of standards?

There are many splendid teachers to whom it emphatically does not, who know that the New Education, if it means anything, means a greatly enhanced efficiency of the child's mental instruments, through the freeing of his own individual powers from the tyranny imposed by a discipline of fear or by the too dominant sway of the teacher's own mind. Now, this increase of power on the part of the child should be matched by an increase of wisdom in guidance on the part of the teacher, which aims at as high a level of attainment for the pupil as is consonant with free and natural development. Sloppy, inaccurate, careless or scamped work should be anathema to the "new" teacher far more than to the "old," and will, indeed, if he knows his job, be of rare occurrence, for the pupil will almost always be working with all his available energy, and the mistakes he makes will mostly be the natural ones of the beginner and not the results of slackness and indolence. Moreover, the importance of character-forming on which the New Educators lay such stress, demands that the child should be ready and even eager to cope with difficulties which require hard work. (With that most important side of character-forming with which the art teacher is so much concerned, viz., the good emotional outlet which free creative expression provides, we have not space to deal here). Now, given these obvious advantages which the New Education offers, why is it that to many of the general public it means an education which is not thorough? Is there any justification for this idea?

One reason for it may be found in the fact that there is a certain number of the "new" teachers who are not up to their work, though not nearly so many as there are among those of the old régime. Mr. H. G. Wells was probably portraying in his "Miss Mills," who taught or rather muddled Joan and Peter at Miss Murgatroyd's "new" school, a not impossible or even infrequent type, which is attracted to free education under the mistaken impression that it will demand less of the teacher. Another may be found in the still prevalent idea that a string of unimportant dates or a mechanically stippled drawing are of real

educational value, because of the very grind and drudgery which they represent, and it is assumed that because the modern child cannot produce them his educational grounding has not been sound. Yet another cause of adverse criticism is the undeniable tendency of the present day to produce cheap effects easily (as for instance many of the canvasses shown at our modern exhibitions) and to be careless and unmethodical in work of all sorts, which is really the indictment of the deadening effects of the old education rather than of the pernicious influence of the new, this having not yet had time largely to affect adult work. But after we have discounted these objections, there is in the writer's opinion a real danger of allowing ourselves to be influenced even in a much less degree by the Miss Mills attitude, or by that point of view of which we heard a good deal at Heidelberg (and perhaps to some extent misunderstood) viz., that the child must be left entirely free in his artistic development, and must receive no help or guidance of any kind from his teacher. In our opinion the teacher is a helper, and the teacher of drawing is there to help the child to express his own ideas in picture form, just as much as the teacher of writing or English helps in his department. This help may confine itself almost entirely to drawing the child's attention to the true shape of natural objects, which after all form the letters and words as it were of his picture writing (except in the case of pure design, and of such interesting recent developments as the music-picture) and later on may extend to the more intricate problems of light and shade, composition, and all the other matters which help to make his picture both beautiful and convincing.

Many are the means which may be used to draw out or educate the child's power of expression, the most valuable being the provision in one way or another of models for the figures and objects he wishes to include in his picture, but cannot visualise sufficiently clearly to please himself or anyone else (the ordinary teacher having to deal with the ordinary child, and not with the type Professor Cizek rejoices in). For the figure poses a mirror of a good size, or his little fellow students may be utilised; it is surprising how quickly the essential lines of a pose or a sketch study of hands will be put in if the young mind is intent on the story he wishes to illustrate, and I have found "model drawing" in most cases far better taught through the tables, chairs, books, etc., which are needed for the picture required, than by the set group. But the point I am trying to make is that if the child is not too young he will find his creative instinct better satisfied if the objects drawn are more or less correct in proportion, shape and perspective, and if his figures look lifelike and have real hands, not claws or rakes, attractive though these are in the drawings of the seven-year-old. I find that children are most anxious to get their pictures correct; the other day I found one piling up the studio furniture to try and see what the queen's throne looked like to "the little mouse under her chair." The effort, however, being perilous and the effect not very convincing, we took a chair out and placed it on the nearest staircase with harmless and quite satisfactory results. Bumble-bees, sea anemones, crabs, cats, rabbits, dogs, and birds will all sit for their portraits if asked, and placed in suitable enclosures, though it should be added that the dog will be deeply offended if it is assumed that an enclosure is necessary.

I plead not only for a retention of the old standards of good drawing and expression and thoroughness generally, but a raising of them, in the vastly more favourable conditions that are now available. Now that we have scrapped the old senseless dry-as-dust machinery, let us look to it that the newly-freed creative impulse of the child gets the help and guidance and inspiration towards perfection that it asks for from the teacher and has a right to expect.

Winter — *Frances Lindesay, aged 16 years*

ST. LEONARD'S SCHOOL, ST. ANDREWS, FIFE

The Genie that pass in the Wind — *Jean Lloyd, aged [illegible] years*

ST. LEONARD'S SCHOOL, ST. ANDREWS, FIFE

Three Years of the Dalton Plan in a Scottish School

By Neil S. Snodgrass, M.A.

(*Head Master of the Training College, Dundee*)

TTISH teachers, whatever they may be in politics, are inclined to be conservatives in education. New methods are more freely discussed than practised. This is natural enough, perhaps. There is a long and sound tradition in Scotland as regards things educational. We have attained a fair measure of success and naturally hesitate to scrap methods that have stood the test of time. Such an attitude helps to protect us against the nostrums of the educational quack, but it also tends to keep us too long in the ancient ways. Education is a progressive science, and educational methods that are psychologically based, and sponsored by practical teachers, cannot be wisely ignored.

Few methods are better known than the Dalton Plan, yet how few Scottish schools have given it an exhaustive trial. From the very nature of the teacher's work it is seldom possible to judge a proposed new method by argument alone. It has got to be tried and the results carefully measured before one is entitled to pronounce judgment. In its essence, of course, the Dalton Plan is not really new. There is no country in the world, perhaps, where its spirit has been more sedulously fostered than in our own. Many of our country schoolmasters are past masters in the practice implied in its central doctrine; but the Plan, as Miss Parkhurst has described it, has this great advantage over the practice of the rural schoolmaster, that it is more fully developed, more minutely worked out.

I do not propose to go into the details of the Plan. These, I feel sure, are tolerably well known. My purpose is to describe, as simply as I can, my own experience with it and to indicate the conclusions that this experience has forced upon me.

The Demonstration School in Dundee is attached to the Methods Department of the Training College. In accordance with the usual custom in such schools, it serves as a field of observation and practice for the students, and as a field for experiment on the part of the teachers and lecturers. It is a comparatively new school, dating from 1921, and has a roll of 380 pupils. The staff consists partly of experienced teachers, partly of "transferred" teachers who serve for a period of three years and then return to the schools from which they came.

Naturally a good deal of experimental work is carried on. This indeed is more or less necessary if the school is to fulfil its function. Among the more important experiments attempted the following may be cited:—

1. The teaching of reading by means of phonetic symbols.
2. The institution of script writing throughout the school.
3. The extensive use of "individual" work in the infant and junior
4. Teaching by means of "projects."
5. The Dalton Laboratory Plan.

Difficulties

The last of these experiments has been running for three years in all classes above Senior III, that is with children whose ages range from 10 to 15. Five classes are involved, Senior II, Senior I, Advanced I, II, and III. The experiment proved somewhat difficult to carry out in a new school, with a staff not fully acclimatised, and with pupils drawn from a variety of schools varying in standard and methods, but it had to be done in order to illustrate in a practical way the precepts of the lecture room.

The difficulty was increased by the fact

that some of the college lecturers were responsible for work in the school as well as in the college, an arrangement necessitating the dovetailing of the two time-tables. Thus the lecturer in mathematics is also the responsible teacher in mathematics, other lecturers taking part in the teaching of science, drawing, needlework, etc. This made the Plan complicated to work, since a lecturer might not be available in school throughout the periods when the Dalton work was in operation. It is no small tribute to the soundness of the Plan that in spite of these drawbacks a reasonable measure of success was obtained.

Subjects

The subjects undertaken were English, History, Geography and Mathematics. French, studied in the Advanced Division, was not dealt with under the Plan, and Science, partly because of the difficulty of accommodating the two time-tables, had also to be left out of the arrangement. For each of the subjects operated on Dalton lines, a "laboratory" was provided, and a room was also reserved for "conferences" or special lessons. In this room groups could for the time being, be withdrawn from the various "laboratories" without disturbing the rest of the pupils. The customary arrangements for Dalton work were employed. "Assignments," each providing for four weeks' work, were posted up in the various "laboratories." There was (usually) a brief test at the end of each assignment, with three term tests each year in addition.

TIME TABLE—ADVANCED DIVISION.

	Class	9–9.45	9.45–10.30		10.45–11.30	11.30–12.15
Monday ..	1	D	1 D		1 French	1 **D**
	2	D	2 D		2 Science	
	3	Science			3 D	3 D
Tuesday ..	1	Science			1 D	1 D
	2	D	2 **D**		2 French	2 D
	3	**D**	3 D		3 D	3 French
Wednesday ..	1	D	1 **D**	INTERVAL	1 French	1 D
	2	D	2 D		2 D	2 **D**
	3	**D**	3 D		3 D	3 D
Thursday ..	1	French	1 **D**		1 {Boys—Woodwork / Girls—D}	
	2	Drawing			2 D	2 D
	3	**D**	3 D		3 D	3 French
Friday ..	1	D	1 D		1 French	1 D
	2	**D**	2 D		2 D	2 French
	3	D	3 D		3 Science	

signifies Dalton work. **D** signifies a formal lesson in Mathematics.

As will be seen from the above time-table, the Dalton work proper was confined to the forenoon, although a certain amount of non-Dalton work had to be intruded. The afternoon served for the rest of the non-Dalton subjects, but it also provided time for conference work in English (2 periods), History

(1 period) and Geography (1 period). Conference work in Mathematics (where necessary) was taken at the periods indicated. This Time-Table refers to the Advanced Division Classes only, but the two younger classes were dealt with at the same time and, naturally, used the same "laboratories."

After the partial confusion of the first week, natural enough perhaps with young people in presence of a new and unfamiliar arrangement, the work went on smoothly. From time to time difficulties appeared, for each of which a solution more or less appropriate was found. In the case of English the success of the Plan seemed to be assured from the start. This was true also of History and Geography, but Mathematics presented some difficulty. In this subject the pupils, especially the beginners, seemed to need more class teaching than was allowed for. Indeed, we had to take Mathematics out of the general arrangement altogether for a time and revert to older methods, but as this made the school organisation too unwieldy the subject was restored and its difficulties met by reducing the "assignments" and increasing the number of "conferences" and opportunities for class teaching. A similar difficulty experienced in connection with Arithmetic "assignments" in Senior II and Senior I, was met by a similar adjustment.

As regards English and the related subjects such difficulties as emerged were of minor consequence. At first Handwriting seemed to deteriorate, there was so much more of it to be done than under the older régime, but a little extra watchfulness set this straight. Then Spelling appeared to be in need of attention, but on closer examination it turned out to be more in appearance than in reality, because of the wider field for error offered by the increased body of written work. A short, vigorous, daily drill checked whatever tendency there was to deterioration.

The "assignments" do not call for any special comment. An attempt was always made to consider each batch as a whole with a view to the elimination of unnecessary work. For instance, it was sometimes possible to permit written exercises in History to count as composition in the English assignment. This saved the pupil's time and it had the advantage of helping him to realise his work as a whole.

The assignments for the month of June this year centred, for the most part, round a single theme. That is, a "project" was selected as the basis of the month's work, the subject being "Wool and the Woollen Industry." The treatment helped the pupils to see how such a theme ramifies through various subjects. Thus in the Geography assignment they investigated the conditions that favoured wool rather than mutton. In their various classes they studied, as wool-producing areas, the Pennine and Tweed districts, Australia, South Africa, Argentine, etc. They also considered the wool trade within the Empire as a whole. In the Mathematical assignment the statistics of the trade (taken from blue-books) provided material for various calculations and graphical representations. Then in the History assignment the pupils were led to see the significance of sheep-rearing in its bearing on the social life of early times and on the foreign policy of the Norman and Plantagenet kings. The establishment of the wool manufacture and its evolution through the Family stage, the Guild stage, the Domestic stage, the Factory stage were carefully brought out, the whole assignment forming a very suitable revisal for the end of the Session.

Effect of Dalton Plan on Pupils and Teachers

It was interesting to note the effect of the Dalton experiment on the children. At first, rejoicing in their freedom to plan their own time-tables, they were more restless and talkative than appeared to be desirable, but that gradually disappeared. Responsibility gradually sobered them, and many of them worked

much harder than they had ever done before. In a recent article contributed to the Training College Magazine, one of the pupils, a boy of 14, says: "I learned more English, History and Geography in one year under the Dalton Plan than in all my previous school-days. The Dalton Plan certainly tends to make us do more reading and pay more attention to what is being said in the newspapers about the world's affairs. Personally I think that the Dalton Plan is a sound scheme for improving and brightening education. It brings the scholar into closer contact with his teachers, and makes him look on them as friends rather than taskmasters. I will be sorry to go back to the old order of things when I leave this school for another."

So far as the teachers are concerned the burden of corrections proved heavy at first, partly because the earlier assignments involved more writing than was afterwards discovered to be judicious. In later assignments this gradually righted itself, and as corrections were effected *en passant*, and spread over the whole forenoon, they soon came to be less felt. The strain of teaching and the expenditure of nerve force became sensibly less than under the older methods, and the relations between teachers and pupils more natural and pleasant on account of the increased opportunities for personal contact.

For some time to come Scottish teachers will in all probability prefer to cling to class-teaching and fixed time-tables. Even then it should be possible, as it is most certainly advisable, to leave to the discretion of the pupils a reasonable number of periods, to be used as they find most convenient for carrying out definite "assignments." There is no need to lose the inspirational effect of class-teaching. It would be folly indeed to sacrifice it, but the resourcefulness and initiative which the Dalton Plan develops must at all costs be secured. The child must no longer be a purely passive agent in his own education. Some responsibility ought to rest on him. It will bring new enthusiasm and clearer purpose into his work. In all cases, pupils should know for weeks ahead what ground they are supposed to cover in their various subjects. They should have as clear a view of their objective as we can give them, and a real sense of a job or contract which they are expected to carry through.

Attainment

As regards attainment in the various subjects, so far as it can be measured by an objective test, the Dalton Plan produces results as good as, but not strikingly better than, the results obtained under the older methods. The real gain resides in the new mental outlook, in the capacity for independent work, in the desire of a pupil to find out for himself, in the feeling of responsibility for his own education which the Plan fosters. In this way it is invaluable. This is the real contribution the Dalton Plan makes to modern educational progress.

New Education Conference, Munich, 9th and 10th October

The Fellowship Group in Munich has organised an interesting week-end conference on INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY AND THE NEW EDUCATION Among the speakers are Dr. Alfred Adler, Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, Dr. Leonhard Seif, Dr. Karl Wilker and William Lottig (Hamburg). Full particulars from Frau Maria Ibach, Munchen 9, Benediktenwandstr. 17.

Silent Reading

Notes on some Experiments carried out in an Elementary School

By Jas. A. Masterton, M.A.

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"To read without reflecting, is like eating without digesting."—*Burke.*

In the majority of schools to-day, considerable attention is paid to the individual pupil. The cry for individual teaching is heard on all sides, and much is being done in response. Many very useful schemes have been devised. Assignments, practically unknown to teachers twenty years ago, are prominent features of many of the teaching methods to-day. But, too often, the pupil is given an assignment of work, and fails to make the most of it, because, unfortunately, he seems not to have a sufficient grounding in the rudiments of individual study-methods—he seems to be unable to read silently, and at the same time assimilate that which he has read.

To train a class of 40-50 pupils in methods of individual study is admittedly a problem. Could preliminary training be given collectively? That was the problem that had to be tackled, if the spirit of private investigation was to be instilled through the media of assignments.

Many suggestions were made by the staff, many by the Headmaster. Each and every suggestion was given a fair trial; the results of each trial were carefully considered; only when consensus of opinion favoured a method was its adoption sanctioned. When the final audit was made, it was found that many of the eleventh-hour suggestions were the best; **it was from the pupils themselves that most could be learned.** Collective training in methods of individual study was found to be possible, **provided the teacher was prepared to develop the activities of his pupils.**

A Music Master inadvertently supplied the key. Class Teacher and Advisory Teacher of Singing both failed in the attempt to make certain pupils sound correctly a given note. In the class were one or two pupils whose pitch was accurate. These pupils came to the rescue. They pitched the note, the pupils who had failed imitated them. Success was achieved. The idea bore fruit. What a pupil could do for his confrère in the Singing Class, might he not also do in the Silent Reading Class? The bright pupils in each class were set to help their slower fellows, to show them how to master the difficulties which faced them.

Passages, deemed suitable for Silent Reading, were chosen. These were given to the pupils, and an allowance of time—five minutes—fixed for reading. By keeping the time factor constant, and gradually increasing the length of the passages, it was hoped to develop rate.

Each pupil had to read silently, and be prepared to answer questions on the passage. At first, teachers put the questions, but experience proved that the efficiency of this method was scarcely 50 per cent. When the pupils were asked to be the questioners, a new keenness was developed. The efficiency of this new method was at once manifest. So the teachers were advised to act as referees—to be there to decide what was fair. Gradually the number of "slow" pupils dwindled. But it did not disappear.

From a probationary teacher came a brilliant idea. "What of a battle of wits?" Her plan was as follows: "Choose the brightest pupils and pit them against the slowest ones. Make the bright pupils put questions to these slow ones, and so give individual help. After say five minutes, reverse the procedure, and **encourage the slow ones to question the brighter ones.**" This was done. Pro-

gress was slow, but sure. Gradually, there was an awakening of the "sluggards"; they began to take an interest, and finally to surprise teachers and pupils alike, by an occasional question which for the moment seemed "to floor" their former victors.

The question naturally arose: Can anything further be done to sharpen up these slower sections? Attention was turned to the selected passages. Did these not interest? Or was it possible that nothing ever could interest certain pupils? As dawn ushers in a new day, so did an old idea give birth to a new one. Pictures, instead of reading matter were selected for study. Questions were to be put, **by the pupils**, about these pictures. The slow section became non-existent. There was no one but could, after examining a picture for a few minutes, "pepper" his neighbours with questions. Here, at least, was a possible solution. **Could the children form Mental Pictures of what they had read, and question from these?** Would the most sober of sober-sides be unmoved on reading of Mrs. Gaskell's Alderney cow parading Cranford streets, dressed in "grey flannel waistcoat and drawers"? Was there living a boy who could read Jeffery Farnol's description of The Smithy in *The Broad Highway* without seeing the sparks fly upwards and hearing the bellows roar? Again, which of them, given Ian Hay's *Happy Go Lucky*, would be unable to visualise the crowd who stood absolutely still as the pure and limpid notes of the street singer floated up into the blue summer sky? Which of them would be untouched by pity when the verse broke off before the end, the singer "in the throes of another attack of coughing"? The experiment was worth a trial.

"Switch on to Mental Pictures" was flashed through the class-rooms. And for weeks, not only the ancient classics but writers of to-day were appealed to for pen pictures that would fascinate. Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, Disraeli, John Buchan, Ian Maclaren, Hilaire Belloc—each and all and many more were asked to help.

The selected extracts were written on the blackboard, or hectographed and copies issued. These the pupils read with avidity. "Form in your mind's eye a picture of the scene described," was the general instruction, varied occasionally by "Shut your eyes for two minutes. Think of the passage you have read. Try to form a Mental Picture of it." When questions were called for, the privilege of being questioners was granted to the slower section, for were not these, at present, our special province? To the joy of the staff, new life had been born into the classes. But for how long? On what must this new life be nourished to develop a strong and healthy growth?

Teacher must question, bright pupil must question, dull pupil must question. These had been the instructions. There seemed a sameness in the diet. "Vary the question diet," was the suggestion of a member of the staff. How was this to be done? After much discussion the following "methods" were issued:—

(1) Teacher will ask a specially probing question and the pupil will read to find the answer.

(2) Teacher, when questioning, will deliberately omit some very vital point, to see if its omission will be noted.

(3) Teacher will manipulate the question, say by a mis-statement, to see if its inaccuracy will be questioned.

For a term of three months, this alteration in diet was prescribed, and conscientiously given. But long before the end of the term, the word "pupil" had been inserted for "teacher" in the instructions. If the idea was good in the hands of the teacher, it was excellent in the hands of the pupils. They throve on it. The number of "slow people" was said to be less than before. The "discoveries" reported by the staff were exceedingly interesting. The labels on many of the class members had had to

be altered. Diagnosis had discovered some ailments; had found that others suspected did not exist; had revealed that pupils supposed slow, were only cautious, that others supposed bright were only superficially so. A rearrangement of the class was in every case required. Why?

The ".probing question," which, in the hands of the teacher, had discovered many cases of self-consciousness, and had been the means of detecting many a child's powers of concentration, proved, in the hands of the pupil, that the bright but somewhat superficial scholar—the boy so anxious always to be first—had to take more time in coming to a conclusion, if he did not wish to be outstripped by his more cautious companion. He, the bright lad, profited thereby. So too, did the shy and retiring child, for did he not gain confidence in his own powers? And the approbation of his teacher did much to carry him still further.

The detection of the omission of a vital point placed the accurate and alert thinker "at the top," while the teacher's friendly "Not quite right, but still a good attempt," encouraged many a willing worker for his next effort.

The third variety—manipulation of questions — called by the pupils "Twisters"—was the most popular. Here the play-way was in evidence. The spirit of the game was the deciding factor, and as every child loves to play, it was interesting to note the efforts put forth to puzzle. One class, indeed, felt aggrieved if the day's lesson did not include practice for them in the making of "Twisters."

So far a keenness had been aroused throughout the school—pupils, teachers, headmaster — all were enthused. To deepen that interest, to make it lasting, permanent, further effort had to be made. Discussion showed that most of the difficulties into which the pupils fell were due to a lack of appreciation of detail. The next move, then, was to specialise in detail. Many devices were tried, and finally it was resolved to bank on these three practice forms, as they seemed most useful.

1) Exercises in choice of right word.
2) Exercises in order of time.
(3) Exercises in value of punctuation.

Right Word

Under the first heading—the choice of the right word—three varieties were offered. Suitable passages were chosen —passages full of interest to the pupils— passages it might be of description, or passages where the rhythm would appeal. Certain words and phrases were omitted, and instead, written at the head of the exercises. In their places were put numbers. The pupils were asked to copy down these numbers, in column in their note-books, and opposite each to write the fitting word or phrase required, to give the passage its correct meaning. Take, for instance, this sentence culled from a passage given to a class of average age 11 years 6 months.

> "The *song* of the bird, the *murmur* of the stream, the *breathing fragrance* of Spring, the *golden pomp* of Autumn, earth with its *mantle* of refreshing green, and Heaven with its *deep delicious* blue, and its cloudy magnificence—all fill us with mute but *exquisite delight*, and we revel in the luxury of mere sensation."

The eight words and phrases in italics, were omitted when the exercise was placed before the children, and the words in jumbled order were written at the head of the sentence. The pupil had by association of ideas to fit these into their correct places. In this way it was hoped his power of discrimination in reading would be improved. As a variety in this diet, to the deleted words were added a few more which were irrelevant. This was done to allow the pupil to practise still further his powers of discrimination and elimination.

Or, it might be, the pupils were asked to select from a list of words and phrases the one which, in their opinion, most adequately described the scene. For

example, the children had read and enjoyed Seton Merriman's delightful description of Life in a Caravan in *Tomaso's Fortune*. One of the questions set was:—Which of the following words or phrases do you think describes adequately the interior of the caravan?—

tidy; neat and clean; attractive; dirty and dilapidated; inviting and compact; overcrowded; small and dainty.

Out of a class of 35 pupils, 19 chose "inviting and compact."

Again, the teacher chose a story full of life or interest. Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, Scott's *Tales of a Grandfather*, Cervantes' *Don Quixote*—all gave ideal passages. These were written on the blackboard, and the pupils were allowed five minutes in which to read. Then the blackboard was turned, and certain words, previously chosen, were rubbed out, and in their places numbers inserted. The children wrote down in column, in their notebooks, these numbers, and when the blackboard was again turned, they were allowed fifteen minutes to write opposite the numbers, the fitting words required. The actual words of the passage were not insisted upon. Correct synonyms were accepted. The aim was to make the exercise not one of memory only, but rather one of comprehension.

Time Sense

In some pupils it had been discovered there was a lack of Time Sense. For them, there seemed to be required some training in logical sequence. Hence the exercises in order of time. Two plans were adopted. First, simple sentences in disarranged form were given, and these the pupils had to rearrange so as to give correct thought. The second plan carried out the same idea, only in this case a paragraph was taken, and the sentences written in wrong order, with a view to having these rewritten in order of time. This is a typical exercise, the paragraph being taken from *The Everlasting Whisper—A Tale of the Californian Wilderness*, by Jackson Gregory.

These sentences, put in their right order, form a paragraph. Read them over, and put down the numbers in the order in which you think the sentences should appear. If you think of the events in the order of time you will have no difficulty.

(1) Half a dozen times he was up during the night.
(2) Before dawn, he had his coffee boiling.
(3) He built a fire, made a mat of boughs, wrapped himself up in his canvas, and went promptly to sleep.
(4) He made his camp at 8 o'clock in a sheltered spot among the firs.
(5) An hour later he came to the grove of sugar pines back of the house.
(6 Before the sun was up he was well on his way again, driving the cramped chill out of him by walking vigorously.
(7) He awoke cold, got his blood running by stamping about, put on fresh fuel, and went to sleep again, his feet towards the blaze.
(8) And at 9 o'clock that morning he stood on the bench of a timbered slope whence looking downward through the trees, he got his first glimpse of Lake Gloria, and of a rambling log house.

Punctuation

The third practice form—exercises in the value of punctuation—appealed to the pupils. The humour of the situation was generally relied on to achieve the desired end. Punctuate the following:—"The boy said the teacher was dreaming." Again:—What is wrong with the following sentence:—"There were pictures for a year in that market place—from the copper-coloured old hags and beggars who roared to you for the love of Heaven to give money to the swaggering dandies of the market, with red sashes and tight clothes, looking on superbly, with a hand on the hip and a cigar in the mouth." That only half the class suggested a comma after "money" was sufficient.

proof that still further training was necessary.

Headway having been made so far, attention was concentrated on individual answering of questions on a selected passage. So far the staff had continued the methods found successful, varying their weekly programme in order to keep the pupils from becoming "stale." The aim now was twofold. The teachers were to trace, if possible, the difficulties of the individual pupils. Were there pupils who could not "shine" in oral questioning, but who yet thoroughly grasped the meaning of the passages? On the other hand, it was necessary to make a thorough investigation into the types of questions set by teachers, to discover which were beyond the powers of the pupils, which were too easy, which failed to arouse sufficient interest, which seemed to dull the pupil, and which were of an ambiguous nature? Could a pupil express himself in words sufficiently clearly to make another understand his point of view? Could he succeed more readily by drawing a sketch? These points also had to be settled by the staff.

Instructions were issued that the passages chosen were to be vivid. The idea of training through Imagery was to be adhered to at first, especially with the younger pupils, and gradually more difficult material was to be introduced. From simple straightforward questions, demanding only a selection of the salient points, the pupils were to be led by easy paths to questions of a more inductive kind, and were to be trained to draw their own inferences, to compare these with those of others, and finally to learn the value of considered opinion, and, if need be, of concerted action, before making a final estimate. But, first of all, they were to memorise Kipling's well-known lines:

"I keep six honest serving men,
They taught me all I know;
Their names are What and Why and When,
And How and Where and Who."

The passages for reading were selected with great care. Variety in subject matter, and in style of English was reckoned necessary. Each type of pupil had to be catered for. The questions were carefully prepared by the staff *beforehand*, and were, for the most part, foolproof. A fixed time was given for reading the passages, and a fixed time for answering the questions. Only in this way, in collective teaching, was it thought possible to test both rate and comprehension. In most cases, it was found, these two went hand in hand. In answering the questions, reference to the passage was not only permitted but encouraged—the idea of Auto-education was to be inculcated. The answers to the questions were scored by the teachers, and discussed later with the pupils. This last was essential. How otherwise could the pupils learn wherein they had failed? If an answer was not accepted by the teacher, the class was asked to give the reason why. As an aid to the teacher in further work, frequency scores for each question answered, were collected. Class scores were also tabulated. Through these scores the staff obtained records of the individual abilities of their pupils. By comparison of results they could keep a watchful eye on individual progress, and easily detect when a pupil was "below par," or when a pupil was not really working. In the upper classes not only were graphs of class work kept, but pupils were encouraged to keep individual graphs, showing their own position relative to top score, bottom score, median score. This idea caught on—a spirit, not of competition, but of determination to do one's best to raise the median score seemed to fill each pupil. The idea of team work was fostered. One master drew a red line daily on his graph, at what he called his "pass mark"—a variable quantity dependent on the relative stiffness of the questions. All above were satisfactory—they were "floaters"; all below were reckoned poor—not exerting themselves to give of their best—these were "sinkers." In a few weeks' time the day came when he had no "sinkers," and the occasions

thereafter, when he had to record such, were few. His pupils had learned something of the Art of How to Study.

At this point, pause was made to weigh up. Discussion was freely indulged in. The finding of the staff was that there were two main methods of tackling the Silent Reading problem:—

(1) Questioning by the pupils themselves.
(2) Individual answering by the pupils and the subsequent scoring by the teachers of these written answers, followed by class discussion.

It was generally agreed that the preliminary training in questioning helped the pupil in the later exercise of answering. Thus far, the scheme had succeeded. Pupils could question each other on a passage read, and could discriminate in choice of words and phrases; they had learned a little of the value of association of ideas, and of the importance of logical sequence. They had learned to differentiate between the vital and the less important; they could be trusted to give sensible answers to suitable questions on a fairly stiff passage of reading matter, provided the text was there for reference. The crux of the matter was not yet. Were they, as a result of this specialised training, able to read a passage, and to comprehend it, at one reading or two, if need be? Would they, if the passage were removed, be able to answer a reasonably stiff, but yet fair test, on the subject matter read.

In the final stages it was decided once again to go by easy stages. Once again vivid passages were chosen—passages such that the pupils could form mental pictures of the scenes described. But on this occasion there was a difference. In all but the top class, the passages used were chosen, for the most part, by the pupils of the top class. The teacher had amassed a collection of suitable passages, well within the powers of the pupils, for he had asked his class to make note of any passage which appealed to them in the Library books taken for Home Reading. Thus had he learned the tastes of each of his pupils; thus did the staff find themselves the possessors of a rich variety of material from which to draw. Remembering the Kipling motto of the "six honest serving men," the first papers contained straightforward questions: "What and Why and When, and How and Where and Who."

Gradually variations were introduced. Deductive questions were slipped in; sentences with words omitted found a niche for themselves; sketches were called for; disarranged sentences appeared and demanded to be put straight; titles were required for the selected passages. In a short time, pupils were presented with passages as difficult as any they had studied when hunting for answers to probing questions. And with what result? They were cheering the hearts of their teachers by answering, *without reference to the text;* thus showing that they had profited by their training. They had learned how to read comprehendingly. They had learned to read as they will read in "after school days" silently—for enjoyment as well as for information — they had learned something of that purposeful silent reading which is so essential in these "after school days," if one is to be able to take one's place in this world as a useful member of the community.

What length of passage could a pupil tackle successfully in, say, five minutes? Comprehension rather than rate had been the main object of the experiment, so rate had not been unduly stressed. But the statistics supplied by the staff showed that really good work could be done in a fixed reading period as under:—

AGE OF PUPILS.	LENGTH OF PASSAGE.	TIME LIMIT FOR READING.
9 to 10 years.	50 to 150 words.	5 mins.
10 ,, 11 ,,	150 ,, 300 ,,	5 ,,
11 ,, 12 ,,	300 ,, 500 ,,	5 ,,

The school year was divided into three terms, and the staff reckoned on a "50 word" increase during each term, with extra speeding up in the last year. As

one teacher remarked, it was "just four or five words extra every week."

These are the lines along which experiment has been carried out with pupils from 9-12 years of age. Further experiment is being made with younger pupils. By the use of flash cards, conveying demands and requests, pupils of 7-8 years of age are learning to read more quickly. Their comprehension is judged by how they suit the action to the printed word. "John Dodds, bring me the book which is on your table," is flashed on the blackboard, and John does it. Imagery is also used. *Æsop's Fables* and tales of a like nature supply the necessary stimulus for speech. In the meantime, the teachers are satisfied with the encouragement of verbal expression accompanied by accurate description. Attention to detail is very necessary with these as with the older groups. By the adoption of a "project" method, much is being accomplished. The use of prepositions, for instance, is taught by suiting the action to the word. Collective teaching of detail is achieved. "Put the book on the table" is written on the blackboard. "On" gives way to "below," "under," "near," etc. "Put" then gives place to "hold" or "lay" or "place," and "table" to "chair," etc. And so the changes are rung. Association of ideas is to be found in such sentences as:—"The —— girl is at the top of the class"; "The bad boy ——— in the corner"; "The lazy boy was ——— for school." With the 8-9 year old groups, work on these lines is continued, and here Time Sense and Logical Sequence receive their due share of attention. "We came to school at 9 o'clock. We played before breakfast. We rose early." The play-way holds sway. Absurdities are of incalculable value at this stage. "John took a pint jug to fetch his mother a gallon of milk," appeals to a child of these years. The smile on his face is the first intimation of his realisation of the "silliness" of the statement. "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy." So, too, does much fun, well directed, make him a sharper one.

How do the Junior Teachers view these innovations—these variations on what should never be a stereotyped programme? They report an added interest in the work. They conclude the children are responsive because they think "this is a good game."

"My difficulty," said one young teacher, "is to keep the pupils from becoming too excited, so heartily do they enter into the spirit of the work." Does not that remark speak sufficiently well of the method?

An attempt, at least, has been made to imbibe the spirit of *The Teaching of English.**

> "Whatever be the sphere in which the child's after-life is to be spent, the power to express his thoughts and feelings clearly and appropriately in words, and to understand and appreciate the thoughts and feelings of others so expressed, will be of vital importance to him."

* "The Teaching of English in England." Board of Education Report.

St. Andrews Summer School

The Summer School for Teachers, held at St. Andrews University during July, was a real help to the cause of New Education. It was admirably organised by Professor McClelland (member of General Committee, Scottish N.E.F.) under the auspices of the St. Andrews Provincial Committee for the Training of Teachers, and was largely attended. The lecturers were all chosen for the modernity of their views, and "To-day and To-morrow in our Schools," Dr. C. H. Green on "The New ion," Mr. N. Snodgrass on "The Dalton Plan," Dr. O'Brien Harris on "The courses given by Professor Spearman, Dr. C. W. Kimmins, Mrs. and Mr. expressed in their different subjects the same fine outlook on freedom and individual methods in teaching. *The New Era* was on sale at the office throughout, and many sales and enrolments of new members were made, while some of the lecturers, notably Professor Findlay and Dr. O'Brien Harris, made special reference to the work and ... rature of the New Education Fellowship

A Successful Experiment in Self-Government in School

By Benjamin Skinner, M.A., F.E.I.S.

(*Headmaster of Strichen Secondary School, President* (1923-4) *of The Educational Institute of Scotland*)

Most people who have given careful thought to the question and practically all those who have first-hand experience, are agreed that Education is not static but dynamic. Even if the New Education Fellowship had not so many solid accomplishments to its credit, it would deserve support for what it was founded and exists to promote. "The New Education aims at preserving and increasing the creative powers of the Child." In the carrying out of that aim it places in the forefront certain principles which modern practice has proved to be basic and central, viz., Education through Interest; Co-operation instead of Competition; a Discipline that respects the child's Individuality. In Scotland, at least in all but a small proportion of schools, another of its principles, that of Co-Education, has been practised for centuries. It is not necessary at present to refer even in outline to the Aims of the New Education Fellowship, but I cite one of these, "to promote closer co-operation between the teachers themselves throughout the different grades of the profession," because it is so entirely in harmony with the principle that motived the experiment which I am about to describe. That experiment which was begun in Aberdeenshire five years ago, and has therefore been sufficiently tested to warrant the drawing of reasonably definite inferences, concerns the promotion of pupils at every stage of their course and of their passing from one grade of school to another. The principle on which the experiment was deliberately initiated may be stated thus. Promotion at every stage of the pupil's school life should depend on the teachers' reasoned judgments arrived at by consideration of the individual pupil's work and progress, due regard being had to his home and school environment, his outlook and interest, his aptitudes and adaptability, his performance in the whole range of school activities in the widest sense, his health and outside interests, his special problems and his so-called abnormalities.

Not so many years ago promotion at every stage in Scottish schools was literally not under the control of the teacher. From the age of seven, every pupil could earn promotion only by passing an examination in Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, interpreted in the narrowest sense and mechanically examined by Government Inspectors, acting under rules strictly defined and literally interpreted without reference to the pupil's circumstances, or even to his performance during the year in the three subjects arbitrarily selected for formal examination with a view to promotion. (It is worth recalling that the amount of Government Grant depended largely on the number of passes, the number of passes determined the amount of the head teacher's emoluments and, after 1872, the security or insecurity of his tenure. Need we wonder therefore that "illegitimate" practices were too common and New Methods at a heavy discount?) The lighter side of school life—certainly not the least important at the earlier, and indeed at all, stages—browsing in Literature, History, Geography, Singing, Games, Handwork—was of no account so far as promotion was concerned. The effects of such a system were inevitable and disastrous. The teacher was in shackles. The pupil was a pawn in the

game of extracting or withholding Treasury Grants. The whole outlook of the community on education was distorted.

Relaxation of such cast-iron methods of control began in the Junior Division of the school and gradually extended up to the stage when the pupil, about the age of twelve, was supposed to have completed his Primary Education and to be ready to begin somewhat more advanced or specialised instruction in his own school, or to be transferred to a school providing properly organised courses of higher instruction in Languages, Mathematics, Science, etc. The latter class of pupil was made the excuse for the continuance of external control at this stage. It was necessary to satisfy the receiving school that his education was sufficiently advanced to enable him to profit by the advanced courses open to him. Five years ago, to the consternation of most Authorities, and even a moiety of teachers—for there is no more conservative profession than that of paedagogue—the Education Department divested itself of responsibility for Qualifying Promotion and asked individual Education Authorities to make their own proposals, to be approved by the Department, for the promotion of both classes of pupils above referred to.

In spite of a pretty plain hint from the Department, followed by cautionary letters more or less definite, most Education Authorities promulgated schemes providing for written examinations in English and Arithmetic, the papers being set and the answers corrected either by an Examination Board, representative of the Education Authority and the teachers, or in the vast majority of cases by external examiners only. That the latter proposal was accepted in so many areas shows how very slowly modern principles of education based on sound psychology percolate minds petrified by tradition. Alas, that it is necessary also to record that jealousies between the different grades of teachers in certain counties prevented the general adoption of a method of promotion which one is surely justified in thinking would have been approved by the Department, and which, as a matter of fact, was that adopted in Aberdeenshire.

In Aberdeenshire, also, proposals were put forward for the continuance of Qualifying Promotion on the old lines of external examination and control. This scheme the teachers, acting through their County Executive, unanimously declined to accept. The fight was stern, but victory lay with the progressive side, and it is only due to the members of the Authority who concern themselves with educational questions to state that they have worked loyally to make of the experiment the success that it has proved. The Board of Studies consists of six members of the Authority and six teachers, with the Director of Education and His Majesty's Inspector as Assessors. While the Board thus established deals with the question of Qualifying Promotion, its activities are of a much wider character. Almost immediately after the establishment of the Board of Studies, the Authority members suggested that the Board should make a survey of the educational needs of the County in order to find out what additional facilities were required, and that thereafter it should make representations to the Educational Authority thereanent. It was found that fairly adequate provision was in existence so far as concerned suitable classrooms for giving instruction in ordinary branches, but that much leeway required to be made up in the way of buildings suitable for giving instruction in Science, Drawing, Domestic Subjects (including the accommodation and equipment necessary for providing rural pupils with a hot meal in winter) and Handwork. A complete scheme was prepared, and the Authority has made a very good beginning by providing the necessary facilities in the larger schools, while an earnest effort is being made to extend such provision even to two- and three-teacher schools. The Board has also secured the appointment of several

additional itinerant teachers who give instruction in practical subjects.

No "modern" teacher wishes to see a detailed syllabus of instruction imposed on the school from outside. In proportion as the teacher is deprived of the incentive to inquire, experiment, improve, adopt or reject in the course of his daily work, by even a well-meant attempt to give guidance from without, he becomes less responsible for his job, and the efficiency of his school as a place of adventure, and therefore successful work, is gradually lowered. But in any area where pupils are transferred from one school to another, and especially in a county like Aberdeenshire, where the yearly migration of the married farm-servants causes a transference of pupils which may amount to from ten to forty per cent. of the school population, there must be some sort of educational syllabus. The Board of Studies therefore drew up a 44-page pamphlet of suggestions dealing in general outline with all the subjects taught in Primary Schools or Departments. The preliminary statement explains that these suggestions are intended for the guidance of the responsible teachers in drawing up courses, suitable for the general needs of the schools concerned, subsequently approved by H.M. Inspector and, after consultation with him, capable of being modified from time to time as circumstances and the needs of sections or even individual pupils may require. Only in the case of such "new" subjects as the League of Nations, Thrift, Temperance are the suggestions to some extent displaced by more detailed hints. We may fairly claim therefore that the utmost possible freedom has been left in our county to the head teachers and staff who wish to adapt their instruction and methods to everchanging circumstances and to cater for the idiosyncracies even of individual pupils as far as large classes or, as is necessarily often the case in rural areas, the teaching of several classes by one teacher will permit. We have taken a big forward step in Self-Determination.

As a corollary to the adoption of these elastic courses of instruction the Board of Studies has brought into use an individual pupil's Record Card, on which at his first admission to school are inserted his name, date of birth and age at entry. If a pupil remains for four years in the school to which he was first admitted no further entry is made on the Card, but, at the end of his fifth session, note is taken of his class, his mark in English and Arithmetic, as well as an estimate of his general proficiency, and sufficient space is provided to allow for the recording of the considered opinion of the class teacher and the headmaster as to the pupil's ability, progress, character and outlook. These particulars are recorded also at the end of the sixth and seventh years for all pupils. If a pupil has been specially promoted at any stage of his primary course, he will of course reach the end of that course before the end of the seventh year, and his Card will contain a record of such promotion or promotions and the reasons therefor. If at *any* stage a child is transferred from one school to another, all the above particulars are noted, and in this way the receiving school is put in possession of definite data and can place the pupil in the appropriate class right away. Cases have cropped in which the marks and remarks on the Cards of such transferred pupils were proved to be quite unreliable. From motives which may be easily surmised, *e.g.*, want of a sense of corporate responsibility, indifference, desire to please parents, to keep up the supposed reputation of the school or ignorance, teachers have made entries of very doubtful or even of no value, and they are all the less to be excused because the Card bears distinctly on its front page that it is private. Adequate arrangements are made for its being sent under sealed cover to the receiving school, and it should not be seen by any parent; which, of course, does not mean that the parent is not to get information as to his child's progress. That is provided for by the usual channels. The price of liberty is eternal vigilance, and it is the duty and

practice of the Board of Studies, backed by the co-operation of the teachers, to deal with cases of misunderstanding or abuse of the Record Card in such a way as to secure that it will serve its purpose as containing a reasonably correct conspectus of the pupil's career during his Primary Course.

Qualifying Promotion takes place normally at the end of the pupil's seventh year in school. It is the gate which leads to the arena of more advanced instruction already referred to and whose guarding was, as explained above, recently transferred to individual Education Authorities. If a school contains both a Primary and a Post-Qualifying department to which its pupils pass on qualifying, promotion at this stage should differ in no essential particular from that at any stage of the Primary Course. It should be, and is in well-regulated schools, based on the pupil's school history as summarised on the Record Card. In the case of pupils who for any reason are to be transferred to another school at the qualifying stage, it is only reasonable, indeed essential, that those who are to be responsible for the pupil's classification and progress in his new school should be satisfied that he has reached the necessary standard of proficiency. In the interests of reasonable uniformity, and as it is not always possible to decide beforehand whether a pupil will be transferred or not, the following arrangements hold for all cases of Qualifying Promotion.

During the nine months preceding Qualifying, the responsible teachers (class and head) submit the pupils to tests *prepared by the teachers themselves* on the lines laid down by the Board of Studies. The headmaster is held responsible for the integrity of the examinations, for the correction and assessing of the papers worked by the pupils, and for the production of these papers when called for by the Director of Education or other recognised officer. At this point note the essential, call it *bold* if you like, feature of the scheme. It is the deliberate intention to make the teachers responsible for testing their own pupils. Before the Qualifying date the following practice holds. On appropriate schedules are entered the names and ages of pupils and a mark, Very Superior, Superior, High Average, Average (50 per cent.), Low Average, Inferior, Very Inferior, under each of the following heads:—English Subjects, Arithmetic, History, Geography, Nature Study, Drawing and Handwork, General Proficiency.

In the case of pupils to be transferred to another school, the Schedule is sent direct to the head of the receiving school, who has the recognised right to confer with the head of the supplying school, to call for the worked papers of the candidates if he desires to do so; thereafter, if he is not satisfied, to arrange for the pupils, or any of them, to take an additional test set by the two heads in consultation, or failing an agreement, by an outsider mutually agreed on. If the receiving head is satisfied—and knowing the supplying schools by experience, he is satisfied in all but an almost negligible percentage of cases—the pupils are regarded as qualified; if he is in doubt or not satisfied, the cases in question are referred to the Board of Studies, whose decision is final. The Schedule for the non-transferred pupils is sent to the Board of Studies which has a statutory meeting before each of the three qualifying dates. It is the duty of the Director of Education to examine the Schedules and, if he thinks it necessary, to call for the worked papers of some (or even all) of the *normal* pupils. Pupils are classified thus:—

(*a*) Normal Pupils.—Those whose ability and attainments are such as may reasonably be expected at this stage.

(*b*) Doubtful Cases.—Pupils whose ability is average, but who have not quite reached the standard.

(*c*) Abnormal Cases.—Pupils who are markedly deficient (or excellent) in one department of study but of average attainment in the others.

(*d*) Subnormal Pupils.—Those who for any reason have not reached, and are not likely to reach, the standard but who ought to be promoted exceptionally and specially.

The papers of all subnormal and doubtful pupils must be produced for the inspection of the Board of Studies, and these cases, which, under the system formerly in force, would almost certainly have been marked failures, receive the careful, even anxious, consideration of the Board. In this connection great weight is attached to page 3 of the Schedule on which for each pupil are recorded the supplying headmaster's "opinion based upon observation of Natural Capacity and Outlook," and his recommendation as to the pupil's further course of study, particular attention being given to any cases of abnormality. We have found this information most useful. In giving it frankly, the headmaster feels that his responsibility for these difficult cases is being shared by people who have wide experience, and who are prepared in a spirit of sympathy and helpfulness to consider *each case* on its merits and to recommend the Authority to provide facilities for instruction in practical subjects suited to develop capacity that is often latent and dormant till a suitable stimulus is employed.

Where pupils are found to be "non-qualifiable," the Board invariably leaves it to the headmaster to give whatever kind of education available is likely most to benefit each individual case. I regret that space does not permit of my giving further details of this part of our work. We believe that by studying each case individually, and to a large extent without laying undue stress on individual performance in purely theoretical abstract studies, we are enabling these "abnormal" pupils to realise themselves as they would never do if they were slumped with others and thrown on to the rubbish heap because they cannot pass through a regulation sieve. We seek facilities to "develop the whole nature of the child, not his brain power only."

The key to the success of the system is the teacher. Our teachers have risen well indeed to the occasion. Where the Board finds ignorance on the part of teachers to be the cause of failure, it exhorts, advises, encourages. Where teachers are irresponsible or careless, it advises first, reprimands later. Where they persist in waywardness and prove contumacious, the Board regretfully hands the case over to the Education Authority, whose justice cannot always be tempered by mercy.

Has the experiment been successful? Those who were at first doubtful are now convinced that the principle of collective responsibility on which some of us relied from the first has been abundantly vindicated. Members of the Board have noticed an increasing and sustained improvement in the standard of the work. The Education Authority shows its confidence in the Board by referring to it many questions that were once regarded as being solely within the Authority's purview. Convinced that school classrooms have more and more tended to become listening rooms in which pupils are expected to assimilate with a view to almost word-for-word reproduction at examinations, those of us who were responsible for claiming and securing this reasonable freedom have tried, successfully thus far, to make it possible for every schoolroom to become increasingly a laboratory, a scene of childlike activity and inquisitiveness where the natural spirit of romance and wonder will not be blighted by artificial standards of judgment.

The Scottish Teachers' Code of Professional Etiquette

By William Boyd, M.A., Ph.D.

(Lecturer in Education in the University of Glasgow, sometime President of the Educational Institute of Scotland)

THE most distinctive feature in the movement towards educational freedom in Scotland, as I see it, is the emphasis on the freedom of the teacher as the essential pre-condition of the freedom of the scholar. We have our Froebelians and our Montessorians and our Daltonites, many of them enthusiastic and a few enterprising, but in a country where private schools are very uncommon, and education is almost entirely controlled by large county authorities, there is little scope for the individuality and initiative which give new methods a chance to develop and spread. Under these conditions the only hope for a freer education is to accept for the time the ordinary schools with their big classes and their tendency to routine and mechanism, and seek for betterment through a change in the attitude of the teachers to their pupils and their work; and that in fact is the most promising line of advance in Scotland to-day.

The difficulty is to get the free teachers from unfree schools and training colleges, working under the rather hard tradition which has made instruction so very efficient and education but moderately satisfactory in the past. So far a large section of Scottish teachers, probably indeed the majority of Scottish teachers, accept things as they are without consciousness of anything wrong, and many of the older and more influential members of the profession are even keener on the mechanical grind and the stereotyped examinations and the corporal punishment, which keep the schools in bondage, than their administrative masters. But the leaven is at work, especially among the younger men and women. The steady rise in the standards of education and training during the present century has made the system as it bears on themselves increasingly irksome, and the desire for a greater measure of freedom for the teacher —if not for the pupil—is growing in the profession, and bringing with it a sense of new values, out of which must ultimately come a freer order of things for everybody.

What our idealists object to is the control of their life and work at practically every point by some external person or authority. The conditions of entrance into the profession are fixed by the Scottish Education Department and so to a very large extent are the curricula and the stated examinations which ultimately determine the work of the school classes; and inspectors, executive officers, and headmasters are never far enough away to let the practising teacher do his own work in his own way. The objection, it is to be noted, is not to any control of the teacher and his teaching, but to external control; and the freedom sought is not the right of the individual teacher to do what seems good in his own eyes, but freedom from the compulsion to do what seems good in the eyes of an outsider armed with authority. The ideal behind it is that of a free self-determining profession which makes its own laws instead of being subject perforce to laws made for it by others.

The clearest expression of the ideal is the Code of Professional Etiquette, accepted by the Educational Institute of Scotland in 1920 after it had been thoroughly examined and discussed in Council, as expressing its conception of the teacher's rights and duties. The Code deals both in general and in particular with the seven relationships entailed in the teacher's office: with pupils, with parents of pupils, with the school, with other teachers, with the local education authority, with inspectors or other officials, and with the professional organisation. In each case a general

principle of obligation is laid down, and specific breaches of so-called "professional etiquette" defined. Only the more important points can be detailed here.

The obligation of the teacher to the child is very properly put in the forefront. "The teacher is under obligation to make the well-being of the pupils the primary concern." It is a breach of Professional Etiquette: (1) To speak to or to act towards a pupil in a harsh or disrespectful manner; (2) to punish for ignorance or for any offence not involving moral default; (3) to punish in irregular ways or in excess; (4) to overwork the pupil, *e.g.*, by prescribing too much home work; (5) to give information of a confidential kind concerning pupils except to parents, employers, and others legitimately entitled to it.

The obligation to various fellow teachers is specified under thirteen "breaches." Head teachers and heads of departments are forbidden among other things to criticise or censure a teacher in the presence of pupils or other teachers, or to make reports about the work or conduct of teachers without acquainting the persons concerned and allowing them to make a note of the report, or to compel the performance of duties which cannot be properly regarded as part of the ordinary school work. Teachers in subordinate positions, on the other hand, are laid under obligation to carry out the instructions of the head in a spirit of goodwill and not to discuss the work of the headmaster with fellow teachers or outsiders in such a way as to injure the corporate life of the school.

The problem of external control is dealt with in the sections relating to the employing authority and to officials, like inspectors. In the former case it is made a breach of etiquette to allow the authority without protest (a) to prescribe in detail what is to be taught in any subject (*e.g.*, by the imposition of a syllabus which has not been drawn up in consultation with the teachers concerned), or (b) to lay down regulations with regard to methods of instruction and discipline: in the latter, it is forbidden to allow dictation with regard to the details of what is to be taught or with regard to the methods of instruction and discipline. In the matter of canvassing, which as generally practised is a humiliating performance, the Code prohibits the employment of extra-scholastic influence (*e.g.*, church or political connections) in furtherance of claims for appointments or promotion, and canvassing either direct or indirect in those cases in which canvassing is prohibited by an appointing body.

An attempt like this to regulate the behaviour of teachers in detail is apt to give the impression of legalism. At the time of its first appearance a not unfriendly English critic made the comment that it could only have emanated from a people brought up on the Shorter Catechism, and there is truth in the comment. But the same critic added that through the Code was to be felt the spirit of idealism, and that also is true. The combination of legalism and of idealism in the Code is characteristic of the Scottish mind and character.

That there is danger to the free movement of the human spirit in the codification of rights and duties the compilers of the Code were quite aware. The Code, they expressly say, must not be regarded as a rigid body of law. "The broad principles on which it is based are of more consequence than the particular prescriptions by which they are illustrated and applied. . . . It is the spirit and not the letter of the Code that is really important, and the teacher with a high view of the responsibilities of his calling will certainly not consider that either rights or duties can be defined by this or any other Code." So long as the Scottish teachers keep that in mind, the Code will be an instrument for the freeing of the profession by giving them a law of their own able to take the place of external law. But it can only help to freedom if in them there is alive and active the will to freedom. That will is awakening.

The Progress of the New Education Fellowship

By Robert Hay

(*Chairman, Scottish Section of the New Education Fellowship*)

I think it can now be taken for granted that the New Education Fellowship has taken definite root in Scottish soil. This is not surprising in view of the reputation Scotland has in the educational world, but that it is so, is due largely to the energy and keenness of Miss Cruttwell, the General Secretary of the Scottish Section, who was originally responsible for introducing several lecturers of the Fellowship to audiences of Scottish teachers. Until then the aims of the Fellowship were little known in educational circles in Scotland, but as they did become known the interest of educationists, keen on new ideas, in various parts of the country was aroused. It was felt amongst them, however, that so long as they remained isolated their activities were likely to be seriously crippled. It was out of this feeling that the Scottish Section of the New Education Fellowship had its origin at a meeting held in Edinburgh on November 8, 1924. Since then centres have been formed at Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Kirkcaldy, Perth, St. Andrews, Cupar, Leven, Dunfermline, Forfar and Falkirk. The growth of the Section, while not rapid, has been steady, and to date there are 389 individuals associated with it in one capacity or another. This number, though not large, is representative, including as it does teachers in public and private schools, Directors of Studies in Training Colleges, Lecturers in Universities, and officials of Education Authorities. With ramifications so widespread it is bound to play, perhaps unobtrusively, but surely, an important part in the future development of educational practice in Scotland.

The fact that the staffs of the various Training Colleges are interested in our activities is particularly gratifying in view of their close association with the teachers of the future. But the main work of our Section has been more direct than this. Since its inception 50 lectures have been delivered under its auspices. The majority of these meetings have been well attended, and all of them have been greatly appreciated. This must be recognised as quite a fair achievement, although the more optimistic spirits amongst us may have hoped for greater progress, particularly in a country which puts such value on the need for a sound education being given to all its citizens. But while it is true that in Scotland a keen interest is everywhere manifested in education, there is not, I am afraid, amongst a certain section of Scottish teachers, at least, a similar enthusiasm for the newer methods. It would, I believe, be truer to say that they are suspicious of them, and think they have said the last word when they have described them as fads. What the reason for this conservatism in things educational is, it would be difficult to say. It is just possible that having become accustomed to hearing the educational system of Scotland lauded to the skies, they have assured themselves that a system which has so many admirers can have little need of change. But whatever the reason, the fact has to be regretfully admitted. The enthusiasm of many young teachers, and the desire to try the newer methods, have been damped by the luke-warmness, if not the actual hostility of certain head teachers. The old methods have produced the results, and that is good enough for them. That such an attitude does exist, justifies to the full the existence of the New Education Fellowship. To combat it ought to be our main function, and to do this effectively we ought to aim at having in as many schools as possible at least one enthusiastic member who will bring the

claims of the Fellowship before his or her colleagues in season and out of season. After all, the New Education Fellowship is more concerned with methods than with systems, and I am convinced there is a niche in Scottish Education for a movement of this nature.

Parents

The scope of the Fellowship must, however, be wider than this. Unless it is going to reach outsiders, and especially parents, as well as those actively engaged in the sphere of education, much of its work will be ineffective. What the average parent fails to appreciate is the fact that education should concern him and her as much as it does the teacher. Long before the child comes under the influence of the teacher the foundations on which the latter is to build are being laid, and even during his school-life the influence of the home may be militating against the influence of the school. What does it profit a teacher to avoid all repressive methods, if such methods are the only ones the parents understand? It is no exaggeration to say that a large percentage of parents are quite unfitted for the training of children, and the tragedy is that they do not seem to appreciate the fact that any special training or knowledge is necessary. Any organisation that succeeds in bringing the need for such knowledge home to them will be doing a useful public service. I feel certain that the teaching profession as a whole would welcome their co-operation. The practice of having a Parents' Day, when parents are invited to visit the school in order to see exactly what is being done, is a growing one. Such a scheme does much to remove the barrier that too often stands tall and grim between the home and the school. If Parents' Day does nothing more than bring home to parents that the school of to-day is a happier, kindlier institution than it was in their time it will not be held in vain.

But obviously the point I am trying to make goes further than this. We want a partnership between teacher and parent not on one day of the year, but all the time—a partnership built on knowledge and mutual understanding.

That the training of a child is one of the most difficult and delicate tasks that a mortal being could be asked to perform is a fact not fully realised by the great mass of the general public. In this field we have much to learn from America. There the trained psychologist is an integral part of the educational staff in most of the large centres. Part of his duty is to give, in simple language, talks on the problems that arise in the management of children. Parents are invited to consult him about any particular difficulty they may be experiencing with their children, with a view to obtaining expert advice on the most effective mode of treatment.

In these days of economy campaigns there can be little hope of so enlightened a policy being generally adopted in our country. This is all the more reason why voluntary organisations such as ours should step into the breach. How to set about it may not be very clear, but the general public could be reached through various existing organisations, *e.g.*, the Men's and Women's Guilds of the Co-operative Movement and the Workers' Educational Association.

The membership of the former of these organisations at least is composed largely of working-class parents, and I feel certain that they would receive sympathetically any suggestion for their co-operation.

But whether or not the general public can be reached does not minimise the valuable work the Scottish Section of the New Education Fellowship has done in the course of its short existence amongst those more directly engaged in the work of education. Whatever success has attended its efforts has been due largely to the enthusiasm of the General and Local Secretaries, and it is only right that these services should be publicly acknowledged.

Notes on Experiments

(Owing to the large number of MSS. received and the fact that space is limited the following notes will give an indication of the wide range of experimental work that is being done in Scotland, and will also enable our readers to follow up any experiment in which they may be specially interested. We hope at some future date to publish in full some of the MSS. referred to, and also some of the others omitted)

The Montessori Method in a Free Kindergarten

Miss A. F. Mackenzie sends a very interesting account of Montessori work that is being done at the Free Kindergarten of the Training College of the Edinburgh Provincial Committee. In reflecting on the advantages of the Montessori Method Miss Mackenzie emphasises the following points:—**Sense Training,** by means of material so devised as to make very clear the *qualities* of objects, assists the child in his observation of his environment. **Liberty.** The child enjoys intellectual liberty. He is free to devote himself to activities which interest him at his particular stage of development. **Muscular Activity.** Muscular activity plays an important part in the learning process. Muscular co-ordinations accompany the learning of letters, of sums. The hand is being continuously trained along with the mind. **Social Training.** The child is continuously learning to adapt himself to a social community. A little child readily learns that he must wait for material which another child is using, and that he cannot tear around in a room in which other children are working with material which can readily be upset. Although the rights of the individual are respected, situations are constantly arising in which the child can develop fully the social qualities which he possesses.

Drama at King Arthur School, Musselburgh

Miss E. H. C. Pagan, M.A., Principal of King Arthur School, has found that good drama at the school age gives the same kind of valuable lead to the unfolding of mental and moral faculties that good gymnastics and dancing give to the physical powers of co-ordination. Drama is a discipline. It is a useful exercise in mental concentration, and the further exercise of entering specially into the thoughts of another person, of putting oneself into the place of someone else, enlarges sympathies and increases understanding of different aims and motives. The personality is enlarged. The next step is the discovery that the attitude of mind reached by this imaginative effort calls up corresponding emotions. A sweet-tempered child has been amazed to find how angry she could feel with her best friend during the performance of a quarrel scene; and that was for her a convincing demonstration that thought controls feelings. Feelings in their turn determine action. Nothing conquers the self-consciousness and awkwardness of the hobbledehoy stage so quickly as dramatic training. Drama also provides scope for exercise in all the other arts; it gives them a *practical* outlet.

Towards Freedom in Baldovan Institution School for M.D. Children, Dundee

Miss Mary M. Lindsay, M.A., formerly headmistress of the Baldovan Institution School, sends a report of a step towards freedom along modified Dalton lines. In a one-storied wooden building situated on the edge of a wood with four class-rooms opening out on to a sunny verandah, 100 boys and girls are received. In the morning the children of the higher group work according to assignments covering one week's work. In the lower groups graded individual apparatus is used. In the afternoon handwork, practical work, dancing and rhythmic work is taken in group, the class method being used in these subjects to preserve the child's sense of unity within a community.

The children are bright and interested in their work; they are reaching true freedom in an atmosphere of creative activity and co-operation.

Lenzie Academy

The Dalton Plan has been adopted by the fifth and sixth year students of the Secondary Course. So successful has the Plan been that Mr. George Murray, the Rector of the Academy, intends extending the Plan to the whole Post-Intermediate Department and later still further down the school.

South Queensferry Public School, W. Lothian

has instituted Rural Courses in the Advanced Division comprising Rural Science for boys and Domestic Science for girls. Rural Science includes both theoretical and practical work, the latter being carried out on the school experimental plots and based upon what is learned in the laboratory. Domestic Science consists not only of Cookery, Laundry-work, etc., but also includes the study in the laboratory of experimental science allied with the principles of Domestic Science and Hygiene, together with a study of the plant as far as it concerns Cookery and Eugenics.

Yardheads School Play Centre

Mr. John Stewart, Chief Executive Officer for Edinburgh, sends an interesting account of one of the three evening Play Centres carried on by voluntary agencies in Edinburgh. The Education Authority for Edinburgh gives a small grant towards the upkeep of these Centres. The Centres provide tuition in dancing, singing, games, etc. The children have access to books, games, and toys of all kinds. The happy activity provided by these Centres should reduce the numbers of juvenile delinquents in the Edinburgh district.

A Kirkcaldy Experiment

Under Miss M. S. Harvey an experiment has been made in the early use of irregular words with young children. A form of phonetic symbol has been adopted to overcome difficulties in the spelling of written composition. After the sounds of the symbols have been gained, as well as the power to write phonetic script, the pupils learn to read in the ordinary way. They quickly express themselves in reading and composition, using their own vocabulary. Among the devices used at a later stage, when the time for transition to ordinary print has come, are bags of coloured cloth hung round the walls of the room. On each bag is printed the particular rule or phonogram which the contents are meant to teach. The sounds of the letters and their combination into words are taught by a number of regular words, illustrated by simple objects and pictures. The first series of combinations begins with the initial consonants, s. m. r. n. v. w. l. f. forming, with the different vowel sounds, three letter words. Each of these consonants is allotted a separate bag and all the suitable words, having for their initial that particular letter, are kept within. Pupils were permitted to choose and concentrate on any one of the series, but the contents of one bag has to be thoroughly explored before proceeding to another.

After from eight to twelve months' work, following this method through the various stages, simple story books are introduced.

Aberdeen Training Centre

In the Demonstration School, Miss M. J. C. Young has also experimented with Phonetic Reading in the Infants' Department. In order to overcome the difficulty caused by lack of phonetic books, a simple phonetic book was compiled and printed in Aberdeen. The alphabet used was that of the International Phonetic Association.

Westby House School, Forfar, and **Hillhead School, Glasgow,** are two up-to-date private schools embodying the spirit of the New Education.